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ABSTRACT

A study examined existing provisions for educational leaves for employees in various countries throughout Europe and the impact of any such existing provisions on labor market development. Present provisions for educational leave in the countries studied appeared to have a worker withdrawal effect that was generally well under 0.1 percent of the total labor force. Women and unskilled or semiskilled workers were poorly represented among those enjoying an educational leave, and the same was true for employees of small businesses. Public service employees, union officials, and the middle and senior management of large businesses benefit most from present provisions. Despite the varying approaches to educational leave and the differences in the experience gathered, the problems associated with its setup and implementation are similar regardless of subject matter. It was concluded that European nations should take steps to develop policies facilitating educational leaves for employees of all sectors and skill levels. Such a policy should provide that 2 percent of all employees be allowed to go on educational leave during the same period for a total of 10 working days per year, all workers over the age of 18 should be allowed to take an educational leave, and employees should continue to receive pay while on leave regardless of the subject matter of any courses taken during the leave. (MN)

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Educational leave and the labour market in Europe

CEDEFOP

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A study of the (possible) influence of educational leave on the state and the development of the labour market in the countries of the European Community

conducted by
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Foreword

Particularly in a period of high unemployment and economic crisis such as we are experiencing at present, further training for adult employees assumes a position of great significance. However, just because the present job-market situation is so unfavourable, the existing forms of adult education are in danger of becoming virtually ineffective in that those taking part are running an increased risk (in the short term, at least) of losing their job.

It may therefore seem rather presumptuous at this point of time to try and launch a fresh discussion on the subject of educational leave and an increase in further education opportunities. Nevertheless, there are a good many reasons why this is, in fact, justifiable.

The availability of further training for adults is, for example, related to the problems of integrating young people into the work process. The problems to do with further training were recognised at an early stage by the European Centre for the Development of Vocational Training (CEDEFOP) and, at the same time, linked up with the extension and renewal of initial vocational training for young people in the form of alternance - type training 1). The question was then, as it still is now, whether we ought not to be striving for a link-up of work- and school-based learning, along the lines of alternance-type training, for adults or older employees particularly in view of pending structural changes and the debate in process on job allocation and reductions in the working week. Bearing this in mind, the aim of

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1) Cf. Youth unemployment and alternance training in the EC, Conference Report, CEDEFOP, Berlin, 1981

this investigation is to analyse the existing provisions for educational leave in the various Member States with the intention of discovering whether there is any common basis for a development of this kind.

Another central issue was the question of whether and to what extent the existing provisions for educational leave have brought about any easing of pressure on the labour market, or rather could have this effect if they were made better use of. There was in fact some speculation that any effect of this kind was frequently exaggerated by firms and those representing their interests, the employers, and may possibly have been underestimated by employee organisations.

Finally, the attempt was to be made to discover which groups of persons are given preference as regards such opportunities and to determine the emphasis prevailing in the subject-matter offered:
more general, vocational or political education.

The findings do not merely serve to dash any hopes - they are absolutely shattering:

1) In all Member States the present provisions only appear to be having - if any at all - an extremely slight manpower withdrawal effect. As a percentage of the total labour force, the figure is generally well under 0.1%. What is more, any significant increase in educational leave would not achieve the aim of reducing working hours or increasing the number in work.

2) Women and unskilled or semi-skilled workers seem to be very poorly represented among those enjoying educational leave; the same is true of employees in small businesses. Public-service employees, union officials and the middle and senior

management of large businesses benefit most from the present provisions. At present, educational leave has no effect on the vocational skills of the least-qualified employees.

3) Despite the varying approaches to educational leave and the differences in the experience gathered, the problems associated with its setting-up and implementation are similar, regardless of its subject-matter. The hopes which were originally placed in these provisions have, for a number of reasons, in many cases not been fulfilled.

4) Although many Member States ratified the 1974 ILO Resolution on educational leave, this profession of intent has not been followed up by any corresponding actions at a national level.

Despite the grim situation with respect to educational leave prevailing in all Member States - or rather for this very reason - the Community ought to take up a definite stance on this issue or even strive for a Directive to be issued - for the following reasons:

a) The right of an individual to off-the-job further training in the form of a once-yearly period of release lasting several days ought to be guaranteed in a comparable manner in each country in order to prevent any distortion of competition between the Member States - and also between the varying conditions existing within the countries themselves.

b) In such a document some criteria, applying in principle to all Member States, ought to be laid down. As far as the manpower withdrawal effect is concerned, a comparable percentage figure could, for example, be fixed as follows: 2 % of the employees would be able to go on educational leave during the same period attending recognised further training measures for a total of 10 days per year, provided they take 10 days of their annual holiday for this; this would mean that in the case of a business with less than 50 employees, not more than 1 employee could take advantage of educational leave; in the case of a business with 50 - 100 employees, 2 employees could take leave at the same time, etc.

Age restrictions on participation should be abolished with everybody over the age of 18 being entitled to educational leave.

c) Employees should continue to receive their pay whilst on educational leave, just as is the case with their annual holiday. Although the actual subject-matter of the course should not play any part in the decision on approving leave, the educational or training centre ought, nevertheless, to supply a programme with at least four hours of activities per working-day. The employees should be required to prove their effective participation in such training. Even if less than 10 days' educational leave were taken, the same number of days' holiday would still have to be used up.

Thus, we advocate granting educational leave, its development and qualitative improvements to it an important role within the Community's Programme of Action for the 1980s in the field of vocational training.

In order to translate this declaration of intent into concrete action, the obvious thing to do is to take the conclusions derived from this investigation and the experiences of the Member States and put them into political practice. Community institutions, the various governments and the two sides of industry in the Member States ought to feel called upon to act in order to make sure that there is an extension and no further cutting-back of educational leave provisions which are so vital in ensuring flexibility and mobility of labour.

On the one hand, everyone is repeatedly demanding that employees must undergo further and advanced training throughout their whole working-life. However, this demand becomes less and less credible if no additional training opportunities are provided or, even worse, the possibilities which do exist are cut back more and more - despite the growing need!

Burkart Sellin
Project Coordinator

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Preface

This present study was commissioned by the European Centre for the Development of Vocational Training (CEDEFOP) in Berlin. In 1981 the "Arbeitsgruppe für empirische Bildungsforschung" (AfeB - Empirical Educational Research Working Group) in Heidelberg was asked to take on this task.

The study has been based on an examination of the existing educational leave provisions, an analysis of them with regard to their relationship to the labour market and discussions carried out with numerous experts in the countries of the Community.

All in all, this present study means that fresh ground has been broken in the international discussion on educational leave in that an attempt has been made to present and summarise one specific aspect of educational leave, its effect on the labour market, at an empirical level and not just at that of normative provisions. In the course of our work a number of problems arose (especially problems to do with statistics, collecting the data, obtaining empirical evidence, etc.) and they should, in particular, be taken into account as representing gaps in the research done. However, we feel that it is correct to assume that our findings can help to objectivize the discussion on the significance of educational leave for the labour market and to replace declarations of intent and supposition with concrete facts.

The study was planned and written by both authors whereas the six monographs on the various countries were divided up as follows: G. Degen was responsible for the United Kingdom (Chapter 2.3), France (Chapter 2.4) and Belgium (Chapter 2.5); and E. Nuissl for the Federal Republic of Germany (Chapter 2.1), Italy (Chapter 2.2) and Luxembourg (Chapter 2.6).

Heidelberg, September 1982

Günther Degen / Ekkehard Nuissl

Educational leave and the labour market

1. Educational leave and the Labour Market

For as long as educational leave has been discussed and has actually existed, it has been closely linked up, both from a content,organizational and a financial point of view, with certain aspectsof the workings of a business and of the labour market. This becomes quite evident if we remember that such leave is, in fact, nothing but paid release from some other work in order to take part in further training measures. The discussion on educational leave, which has been going on for about 30 years, has always been concerned with aspects of the size of a firm, its organisation and the effects on the labour market of employees' being released on educational leave and of the subject-matter of such courses.

This present study deals with the question of the extent to which educational activities and the releasing of employees for such measures can still be of significance for the labour market in the present situation where, throughout Europe, the pressures on the labour market are increasing. The most important factor in the current discussion on the labour market is the fact that in the highly-industrialised countries of Europe the number of jobs is falling and unemployment rising - in some Community countries the unemployment rate is around 20 %, in no country is it under 5 %. The discussion about the labour-market situation is naturally concerned with many aspects of the problem such as linking, in a frequently pessimistic way, the situation on the labour market with the situation of the economy as a whole and with questions of technological innovation or ecology. In this context, educational leave has often been brought into this discussion from two points of view:

- First, some of those involved in this discussion (especially, in certain countries, those from the trade-union side) assume that educational leave (in other words, the paid release of employees to take part in educational measures) will create new jobs if it can only be granted on a sufficiently large scale and if it is actually made use of within a firm.

- Secondly, the discussion on educational leave is conducted from the point-of-view that it can serve as a vehicle for skill-attainment measures which, in their turn, produce an employee qualification structure more suited to the actual requirements of the labour market, this bringing about an improvement in the employees' situation vis-à-vis the labour market.

Discussions in which both of these expectations or assertions regarding the effects of such leave are expressed are going on at present in a good many countries within the EC, with the emphasis being placed on either the one or the other. Of course, it is generally stressed that "the (un)employment problem certainly cannot be solved merely by introducing educational leave that would permit an institutionalisation of vocational further education" (OECD-CERI 1978, 83). However, it is assumed that educational leave can play a more or less significant role in any strategy aimed at solving the problems of the labour market. The institutionalisation of educational measures has, in fact, already been tried out several times as a kind of anticyclical policy introduced during periods of economic slump in the hope and with the intention of having some effect on the situation (the 1964 Industrial Training Act in the UK and the 1971 Vocational Training Act in France).

This present study was commissioned and planned as a supranational research project relating to the Member States of the EC. There are several factors justifying the international approach of the assignment:

a) The macro-economic conditions and the labour-market situation in the respective countries of the EC reveal, by and large, comparable trends. Close economic ties, a similarly high degree of industrialisation, and comparable trading relations and other contacts justify, in our view , the common basis for discussion which enables us to talk about developments in the various countries as well as their respective experiences of particular phenomena in a mutually profitable manner. The fact that all the national economies of the Member States are facing a real crisis at present, even though the individual problems they are facing do vary, is further evidence to support this supra-national approach.

b) The introduction of educational leave in the Community countries, indeed at a general international level, has always occurred in the course of an interrelated discussion and a mutual exchange of experience. Thus around 1960 UNESCO circles were calling for the introduction of educational leave but it was not possible to win over a majority to support such a resolution. However, in 1962 the UNESCO Adult Education Conference in Hamburg passed recommendation No. 10 on the introduction of educational leave (UNESCO 1962, 8), a call which was repeated in Paris (1964), Tokyo (1972) and Nairobi (1976). The International Labour Organisation (ILO) again took up discussion of this subject (which had been initiated as early as 1939) at its 49th Conference in 1965 with a call for the introduction of paid educational leave. In 1974 ILO Convention No. 140 and a resolution on educational leave were passed (ILO 1974). In 1970 the OECD considered the introduction of paid educational leave at its sitting in Copenhagen and in 1976 presented a comparative study of provisions in various countries (OECD 1976). The Council of Europe also undertook several initiatives to introduce educational leave - several projects were commissioned and their findings were published (cf. The Commission of the European Communities,1975). Thus, despite the huge differences existing between the educational leave provisions in the various countries of the Community, it is still possible to discover a common thread running through this whole intensive and wide-ranging international discussion and the resultant agreements.

An investigation of the relationship between educational leave and the labour market, conducted at an international level and related to the countries of the Community, can thus enable us to collect and sift through statistical material relating to this problem at a level which is meaningful and empirically valuable for the individual countries - even though it is extremelv difficult and sometimes impossible to make any individual comparisons.

In preparing this study, three questions had to be cleared up in order to sort out the subject-matter under investigation and to enable us to find an answer to the main question involved:

- How do we deal with the different definitions of educational leave and its differing significance in the various countries?

- From which angle should we approach the relationship between educational leave and the labour market within the terms of the question posed?

- How can we define this question more precisely with respect to the subject-matter under investigation?

In order to arrive at a better understanding of the findings presented here, we would like to begin here by explaining the decisions we arrived at on these three questions.

The varying definitions of the term "educational leave" and the differences in its importance, structurally speaking, in the individual countries do indeed present us with a problem in that the decision as to how we define educational leave as far as the analysis is concerned, presupposes to a large extent an interpretation of the respective provisions within the national context - and this naturally makes any subsequent comparisons between countries more difficult. Thus, to take just one example, in-firm further and advanced training, which is explicitly regarded as educational leave in the UK, is equally explicitly excluded from the same in the Federal Republic of Germany. Even the definitive criterion for educational leave formulated in the introductory comments above - paid release for educational measures - is in need of further interpretation in some cases. For example, in Italy paid release is not always the order of the day; in Belgium, release involves a cut in wages and is tied up with further education activities which are not run on a release basis; in numerous collective-bargaining agreements in the Federal Republic of Germany, employees are only released on condition that no wages are paid for the period in question. The restrictions on the contents of educational leave courses - in Italy general education qualifications; in France, mainly vocational training; in the Federal Republic of Germany, mainly political education - shows clearly that educational leave is indeed defined very differently in the various countries concerned. All in all, we have tried to find a suitable definition for the particular country in question. This, of course, makes any comparison between countries more difficult, but it does enable us to do more justice, at a national level, to the educational leave provisions and the question of what experiences have been had with them. It also enables us to carry out a more accurate analysis of the relationship between educational leave and the labour market. As fas as the investigation itself and the presentation of findings go, this decision had a particular influence on the procedure adopted for the monographs on the individual States.

As far as the approach to the relationship between the labour market and educational leave was concerned, we had to decide whether the questions to be asked and the criteria of assessment should be derived from the labour-market or the educational leave sector. We decided to go for the latter, the reason being, above all, that deriving the questions from labour-market structures and problems would have resulted, in our opinion, in their being directed far too much towards the formal aspect of such release (e.g. its duration, structure, the number taking part, etc.) with a subsequent neglect of the significance of educational leave within the educational system. On the other hand, this decision does have one disadvantage: any distinctions made within a firm (e.g. the effect of educational leave on specific departments or certain types of work, etc.) cannot be taken into account to the same degree. However, in view of the fact that, generally speaking, the quantitative significance of such release is, in any case, slight, we felt that we could ignore this disadvantage.

Finally, we were faced with the task of arriving at a more precise definition of the general question at the centre of this research project so as to relate it to the subject-matter under investigation. In doing this we formulated two investigative questions which then "sharpened up" to cover some more detailed aspects basing this on hypothetical links between educational leave and the labour market. What this involved is described in detail below.

- First of all, we posed the question: what educational leave provisions exist in the countries of the EC and what experience have they had with them? We assumed that information about the existing provisions and empirical evidence are important for assessing which labour-market effects actually exist or may be assumed to be present. With reference to the relationship between educational leave and the labour market, we reduced the question at the centre of the whole investigation down to the following detailed questions after having summarized in general terms the existing provisions:

  o How long is the period of release and what structural aspects are provided for? Or rather, what period of release and structure have actually become common practice? This question was seen as important because the period of release and its structure (e.g. half-day, day or block release) are important for the way in which the absence of individual employees can be dealt with within a firm.

- What contents are provided for in the educational leave courses on offer? Or rather, what course contents have mainly been adopted in practice? This question seemed to be important because, above all, vocationally- or qualification-oriented course contents can show us how significant educational leave actually is for the vocational skills of those in and out of work.

- Who has to bear the costs of the employees' being released and how have the costs incurred changed since the introduction of the educational leave provisions? These questions seemed to us important because the costs incurred (e.g. when the government or the employer is liable to continue paying an employee's wages) represent an important factor in assessing whether any extra jobs can be financed.

- Which groups of employees are entitled to take such leave on the basis of these provisions and which groups have in actual fact mainly taken part in such measures? This question seemed important in that various occupational groups, groups of employees and problematic groups (from a labour-market point-of-view) take part in educational leave to differing degrees and thus it may be assumed that there are also differences in the effect had on the firms involved and on the labour market.

In our presentation we have separated the findings relating to the above questions, chiefly for method reasons, into two categories, the provisions themselves and the empirical aspects; in each case, the first section is devoted to the normative system of educational leave provisions following the pattern of the above questions and the second section represents a summary of the experience which the individual countries have had.

- The second question we posed was: what effects do these educational leave provisions and their implementation in practice have on firms and on the labour market and what are the prospects for an increase in the effect which educational leave has on firms and on the labour market? With this question we take up the findings relating the first question and apply them explicitly to firm structures and to the labour market in accordance with the question at the heart of this present study. In this context, we were chiefly interested in four aspects:

  o What manpower withdrawal effects are achieved in firms as a result of educational leave? We had to examine the hypothesis that releasing employees for such leave leads to the creation of extra jobs within a firm.

  o What effects does educational leave have on the labour market in general? In this context we had to check the hypothesis that providing opportunities for educational leave and enabling the unemployed as well to take part in such measures can lead to an easing of pressures on the labour market.

  o To what extent are educational leave measures conducive to the attainment of further or advanced vocational skills by employees? Here, we had to examine the hypothesis that educational leave, by way of the vocational, the job-related and to a lesser extent, the political education offered, helps employees to become more qualified, thus improving their chances in the labour market.

  o What are the prospects of extending educational leave? We had to examine the hypothesis that an extension of the provisions on educational leave or an increase in use made of the existing provisions leads to a greater easing of pressures on the labour market and to an increase in the effect on firms.

We have presented our answers to these questions in the third section of the national monographs and have attempted a résumé of these findings in Chapter 3, our concluding summary.

The above-mentioned aspects of the relationship between educational leave and the labour market have been presented in the form of national monographs. In doing this, we have concentrated on those countries where more extensive provisions on educational leave exist and which have already had a certain amount of experience with them over a considerable period of time. This is the case with the United Kingdom, France, the Federal Republic of Germany, Italy, Luxembourg and Belgium. The remaining Member States (Denmark, the Netherlands, Ireland and Greece) are the subject of a short summary. This monographic approach to the relationship between educational leave and the labour market is to be found in Sections 2.1 - 2.7 of the next chapter, preceded by details of the data basis, the procedure adopted and the principles followed in the presentation.

2.

Educational leave and the labour market — a national monographic presentation

2. Educational leave and the labour market - a national monographic presentation

In the present chapter we are going to look at the experiences which six countries of the EC (the Federal Republic of Germany, Italy, France, the United Kingdom, Belgium and Luxembourg) have had with educational leave, particularly taking into consideration the significance of the latter for the labour market. The state of the discussion on educational leave in the four remaining Member States (Denmark, the Netherlands, Ireland and Greece) will then be summarized in conclusion.

The starting-point for this national monographic presentation is the fact that the various countries have completely different provisions on educational leave. These differences are to be found at a standardization level - for example, in Italy educational leave is only permitted on a collective agreement basis, in France on a statutory basis and in the Federal Republic of Germany either on the basis of a confusingly large number of collective agreements or, in the case of some Länder, on a statutory basis. However, the differences also apply to those entitled to take such leave, the duration of the same, the provisions for continued wage payments, the contents of the courses offered, the procedures whereby leave is approved, et alia. Moreover, some of the educational leave provisions are of a more individual nature - the latter in accordance with the ILO recommendations (ILO 1964). These provisions are relatively well documented and easily available. Thus, several studies have been written on educational leave in Europe (OECD, 1976; OECD-CERI, 1978; The European Commission, 1975; v. MOLTKE/ SCHNEEVOIGT 1976; et al.). There are also documentary reports on the European educational leave provisions and, to some extent, synopses as well (cf., for example, FEECA). As can be seen, a description of the educational leave provisions in the countries of the EC is, as far as material is concerned, a task which can be completed without any great difficulties, even though numerous individual provisions, amendments, special cases, etc. are not covered by the above-mentioned surveys.

Collecting the empirical evidence on educational leave in the various countries proved to be much more difficult. No supra-national presentation of the empirical evidence had previously been published and so it was necessary for us to collect our own statistical material. To this end, we conducted interviews with suitable experts in the various countries. We selected these persons according to the structure of the educational leave provisions in the country in question and according to their respective functions within the system concerned. Interviews were conducted with:

- representatives of employers' associations and organizations in those countries where the employers are required to continue paying the wages of employees taking part in such measures;

- representatives of organizations looking after the employees' interests, i.e. trade unions - this was done in each country in that everywhere the unions are of vital importance in the introduction of educational leave;

- representatives of the appropriate Ministries and public authorities in those countries where the government has put the provisions on a statutory basis or is responsible from an administrative point-of-view for organizing educational leave courses;

- academic experts in each country, who had already completed studies on educational leave in their own country in the course of their own research work or had, in some other way, been involved in research on the situation of educational leave in their country.

In the interviews carried out with these experts, the emphasis was on obtaining statistical data; in other words, we acquired material which the experts in question had at their disposal and was available in previously published or unpublished form. The questions asked of these experts were also directed towards their appraisal of the significance of educational leave for certain aspects of its relevance to the labour-market situation. The interviews were conducted by following a standard pattern of topics whereby the weighting of the topics differed according to the country involved and the interviewee's function (the standard pattern of topics used in the interviews is included in Annex II at the end of this study).

In the following sections (2.1 - 2.6) the monographic presentation of the educational leave situation, taking into account its significance for the labour market in the individual countries, keeps to those aspects defined in the introduction above where the question of the relationship between educational leave and the labour market is put more precisely: the system of educational leave provisions, the empirical side of things and the assessment of the significance of such leave for the labour market. In each case we have attempted to describe the actual situation as regards the provisions and the empirical aspect and then to mention, for each of the above aspects, the main points of the discussion in the various countries - the points highlighting the problems as seen at present. The various assessments of the significance of such leave for the labour market are largely in keeping with the summaries of the results of the discussions with the various experts.

The monographs on the various countries vary as regards detail as a result of differences in the amount of material available and in the accessibility of relevant data. Generally, it should be pointed out that the authors of this study were, of course, able and indeed compelled to rely in many points on the discussion going on in Germany because of the accessibility of the material there. Notwithstanding this, the statements on the respective provisions, the data obtained and the experience of educational leave in the individual countries provide us with an adequate basis for assessing the significance of educational leave along the above lines.

2.1.

Federal Republic of Germany

2.1. Educational leave and the labour market in the Federal Republic of Germany

As far as the question of the relationship between educational leave and the labour market in the Federal Republic is concerned, it is important to realize that the education system is organized on a federal basis and that the eleven Länder are responsible for their own educational affairs. In addition, there is the fact that the Länder also have statutory control over the financing of education and the Federal Government really only has the power to enact skeleton laws or set a framework of principles within which the Länder themselves can legislate.

In the field of further education there is the additional fact that the Federal Government has not (yet) created a "state-owned" structure and further education is mostly in the hands of the "Volkshochschulen", quasi-public institutions which are supported either by local authorities or by registered societies with a local-authority interest, or of private institutions such as the church, trade unions, employers, etc.

2.1.1. Educational leave provisions

In the Federal Republic there are provisions of this kind in the form of statutes and regulations at a Federal and Länder level as well as collective agreements and in-firm agreements.

a) Federal statutory provisions:

At a Federal level there are no educational leave provisions applying to all employees but only those which, under certain statutes and regulations, apply to specific groups of persons with official posts or public-service employees and judges.

The most important educational leave regulations are to be found in the provisions of the "Betriebsverfassungsgesetz" (Constitution of Enterprises Act) of January 15, 1972. In Article 37, Paragraphs 6 and 7 there are provisions for the release of works council members to take part in further education activites. Corresponding to these provisions, the Federal Employees' Representation Act of May 15, 1974, which governs public-service employee participation, provides (in Article 47, Paragraphs 6 and 7) for the release of employees' council members to take part in further education measures (the employees' council in the public services roughly corresponds to the works council in private firms).

Educational leave provisions are also contained in the Disabled Persons' Act of April 20, 1974, the Work Safety Act of December 12, 1973, the Work Promotion Act (1969 and following) and the Education Promotion Act of August 26, 1971 - in each case they apply to persons with official posts at work.

Finally, there is, at a Federal level, the Regulation on special leave for Federal civil servants and judges dating from August 18, 1965 which, in practice, also applies to other Federal Government employees. However, in contrast to the other statutory provisions, this regulation does not mean that individual public-service employees are automatically entitled to educational leave but rather that the possibility of release exists, with the decision resting in the hands of the public-service authority in question.

b) Statutory educational leave provisions in the Länder:

In five of the Federal Republic's eleven Länder there are statutory educational leave provisions. They are as follows:

- the Berlin Law to Encourage Participation in Educational Activities of July 16, 1970 and the Amendment of

January 31, 1975 by which the age limit for participants was raised to 25;

- the Bremen Educational Leave Act of December 18, 1974;
- the Hamburg Educational Leave Act of January 21, 1974;
- the Hessian Educational Leave Entitlement Act of June 24, 1974; and
- the Lower-Saxony Law on Educational Leave for Employees of December 17, 1974.

(Cf. URBACH/WINTERHAGER, 1975, PETERS/KEIM/URBACH, 1978 and following.)

Between 1979 and 1981 the Social Democratic (SPD) parliamentary groups in the Länder parliaments of Baden-Württemberg, Rhineland-Palatinate, Bavaria, Saarland and Schleswig-Holstein brought in bills aimed at providing a statutory basis for educational leave but they failed to obtain a parliamentary majority. In North-Rhine Westphalia an educational leave planning commission was called into being in order to prepare the way for an educational leave bill. At the time of writing (1982), this commission has not yet completed its deliberations. However, the commission's initial report has been available since 1981. The North-Rhine Westphalian government reckons that the act will be in force by 1985 at the latest.

c) Collective agreements and internal firm agreements

The Düsseldorf Institute of Economic and Social Sciences (Wirtschafts- and Sozialwissenschaftliches Institut - WSI) of the German Trade Unions' Federation (Deutscher Gewerkschaftsbund - DGB) has, since the mid-1960s, been regularly collecting material on educational leave provisions contained in collective agreements. According to their figures, in 1973 there were 198 collective agreements with provisions for educational leave; by 1977 this figure had increased to 204 and by 180 to 212. However, one must not forget that the provisions are far from uniform - there are huge differences in the area of validity, the groups of people entitled to leave, the definitions of the educational event in question and the period of release per year.

Most of the collective agreements do not provide for continued wage payments during educational leave. All in all, there is a lack of more detailed information to form the basis for an assessment of or a comparison between the provisions contained in these collective agreements. In particular, information on the exact term of the collective agreement and of the educational leave provisions they contain is not always available so that in the case of 108 of the 212 agreements containing such provisions it is unclear whether they have expired or have been renewed in subsequent collective agreements. This is particularly the case with agreements in which the area of validity, geographically speaking, coincides to some extent with that of the Länder educational leave acts which have, in the meantime, come into force (KIAUSCH/SCHENK 1978).

Persons entitled to leave

It is impossible, in the case of the Federal Republic, to arrive at a generalized definition of the group and the total number of persons entitled to such leave. The main reasons are that the provisions themselves vary so considerably and the fact that the various groups of persons entitled to leave - whether it be by virtue of provisions applying to specific groups of persons, Länder statutes or collective agreements - reveal a good deal of overlapping.

On the basis of provisions applying, at a Federal level, to specific groups of persons, the following, above all, have the right or the chance to be released on educational leave: members of works councils or public-service employees' councils (Constitution of Enterprise Act, Federal Employees' Representation Act);
spokesmen for the disabled (Disabled Persons' Act); social workers involved in youth work (Länder statutes); Federal civil servants and judges (Regulation on special leave for Federal civil servants and judges); other public-service employees (analogous with the last group).[1]

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[1] We can expect more detailed information on this field of provisions on completion of a research project which is at present being carried out by the "Arbeitsgruppe für empirische Bildungsforschung" in Heidelberg. It is due to be finished by the beginning of 1984.

Among the Länder statutes on educational leave, under which, generally speaking, all employees are entitled to leave, there are two significant exceptions: in Berlin and Hesse this right is restricted to employed persons up to the age of 25. Thus, in these two Länder the main group of those entitled to leave is made up of trainees - besides young employees, of course. In contrast, the Länder statutes of Bremen, Hamburg and Lower Saxony do not contain any age-limits. Here, too, trainees are included. In Bremen the group of persons entitled to leave even includes those who cannot be classed as employed persons - e.g. housewives, retired people and self-employed persons. Only in Lower Saxony is there a limit to the number of employees who can be released on leave from any one firm - a maximum of 25 % of a firm's employees per year.

It is an extremely complicated task to try and determine the group of persons entitled to educational leave by virtue of collective agreements in that different groups of employees are mentioned in the existing collective agreements, of which there are over 200. A Federal Government Report in 1967 produced the first compilation of the provisions based on collective agreements; of a total of 90 agreements containing such provisions, 50 applied to blue-collar workers, 20 to white-collar workers and 11 to both groups (Deutscher Bundestag, 5th Term, Document No. V/2345, 7). Only about half of the provisions in collective agreements at that time applied to all employees covered by the agreement in question whereas the rest was concerned with the release of employees with some sort of official post (works council members, occasionally shop stewards). Of a total of 212 collective agreements existing in 1980,only 164 contain any details of which persons are entitled to leave. Around 2.7 million employees are covered by these 164 agreements but the provisions for educational leave contained in them are such that not all of these persons are entitled to obtain release. In view of the fact that numerous provisions only apply to officials etc., the number of employees who are actually entitled to such leave is considerably smaller than the total number of persons covered by these collective agreements. At present, it is not possible to make any further definite statements on the group of persons entitled to leave on the basis of collective agreements.1)

Contents

In the Federal Republic of Germany three terms are, in the main, used to define the contents of further education measures for which employees are entitled to be released: political education, vocational training and general education. Although these terms present us with a good many problems because of their woolly nature and the fact that it is difficult to distinguish clearly between them, they are still used in regulations, statutes and agreements as operationalized concepts for designating the contents of such measures. In the recent discussions on this it has become quite clear that a division of the contents of educational courses along these lines is especially problematic in the field of educational leave in that such courses usually deal with issues of everyday life from a general angle with political, vocational and general educational elements all playing their part.

A survey of the definitions of course contents in the Federal provisions applying to specific groups is not available. Nevertheless, it is noticeable that the further education measures are intended to concentrate on vocational and function-related political issues.

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1) At present the "Arbeitsgruppe für empirische Bildungsforschung" in Heidelberg is also working on a research project concerned with the existing collective agreement provisions. This research centre has already published two papers on educational leave by collective agreement: U. KIAUSCH/P. SCHENK, Bildungsurlaub nach Tarifvertrag, Weinheim 1978 - this is concerned with the structural and contents sides of collective agreement provisions; E. MÜLLER-NEUMANN/P. SCHENK, Weiterbildung im tariflichen Kooperationsmodell, Heidelberg 1982 - this looks at the "Kritische Akademie Inzell", which was founded and financed by the two sides of industry and directs the educational leave seminars for all employees in the corsetry industry as well as looking after the collective agreement side of things.

In the Länder statutes governing educational leave, reference is frequently made to the determination of course contents in further education in accordance with the statutes on adult and further education. Such statutes exist in all the Länder, with the exception of Hamburg and Berlin, laying down provisions for granting subsidies for further education measures run by private institutions. All the Länder statutes make mention of political and vocational further education. For example, the Hessian Educational Leave Act has the following to say as far as "political education" goes: "Political education is intended to equip an employee to recognise social structures and relationships within society and to fulfil his or her civic duties" (Article 1, Paragraph 3). In the Hamburg Educational Leave Act it says: "Vocational further training is intended to help employees to maintain, improve or extend their vocational skills and mobility" (Article 1, Paragraph 3). Besides the two areas of political and vocational education contained in the statutes of all five Länder, those of Bremen and Lower Saxony also include the field of "general education" without, however, any detailed definition of the contents involved. In Lower Saxony, in particular, there have been several legal disputes during the past two years because employers did not regard the educational leave courses for which their employees wanted to be released as measures of a general further education nature; in the employers' view, they were activities of a leisure variety, hobby courses, etc.1)

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1) During 1983, the "Arbeitsgruppe für empirische Bildungsforschung" in Heidelberg will be publishing an analysis of the legal arguments surrounding these cases of litigation and of the court findings on the issues in question.

In the case of the collective agreement provisions on educational leave, it is apparent in 118 of the 212 cases that restrictions on the group of persons entitled to such leave to those in official positions were combined with course contents which were mainly to do with unions, the firm in question or of a vocational nature. A total of about 1.4 million employees are only allowed to claim their right to release on educational leave, under the terms of the collective agreement involved, if the measures concerned are related to their occupation and of a specialized nature, or if they are directly connected to the official position to which the participants have been elected, or if they can be classified as events organized under the auspices of trade-union educational training.

Duration and structure of release

When we refer to educational leave provisions in the Federal Republic, we are generally talking about provisions for short-term release which coincide with a range of short-term educational measures available. By short-term measures, we mean events lasting about a week or two. In some provisions it is expressly stated that such measures must last for at least three days.

As far as Federal provisions applying to specific groups of persons go, different periods of release are provided for, ranging from a couple of days up to the maximum period of three weeks. Works or employees' council members can, for example, take up to three weeks' educational leave.

As far as the Länder statutes on educational leave are concerned, the Berlin Act contains the most generous provision with up to 10 working days' release. The remaining Länder statutes contain provisions for a maximum of 5 working days' release per year. Other provisions in the various Länder do in fact enable a more flexible attitude to be adopted, above all, with the possiblity of a "cumulative claim" for release being granted, i.e. where an employee can take two years' leave allowance at once.

As far as collective agreements are concerned, the period of release guaranteed by the latter can vary from one to three weeks per year.

Financial aspects

Generally speaking, we must differentiate between the financing of the educational measures themselves and the continuation of wage payments for employees taking part in such measures. In the Federal Republic a financing model has, by and large, emerged whereby the course itself is paid for by the government which either bears the costs directly via some public agency or pays subsidies of varying amounts. The educational leave statutes themselves do not contain any financial provisions. Details of the financial support for further education measures are laid down in the Länder further and adult education statutes[1] and apply to educational leave measures, too. The statutory provisions also contain gradings (politically determined) according to the contents of a course. In the existing Federal provisions applying to specific groups of persons and in the Länder statutes, it is chiefly a case of the employer's being obliged to continue payment of the wages of employees taking part in educational measures when their application for release has been granted.

As far as collective agreement provisions are concerned, we discovered **that about half of them** (102 cases) contained no provisions by which the employer was obliged to continue paying employees' wages. 110 collective agreements containing provisions for continuation of wage payments apply to a total of 1.2 million employees. However, one should not forget that this figure represents the total number of employees covered by the collective agreements but not the number entitled to educational leave thanks to the provisions.

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[1] In Berlin and Hamburg, where (as yet) there are no further education statutes, provisions do exist in the Education Act (financing of Adult Education Centres - Volkshochschulen) and ordinances; however, they are, all in all, extremely sketchy.

2.1.2. Educational leave - statistical data and other empirical aspects

It is impossible to get hold of any comprehensive data on educational leave on a collective agreement, statutory or ordinance basis in the case of the Federal Republic. This is mainly due to the fact that there have, up to now, been no surveys of the extent of utilization of the opportunities available under Federal provisions affecting specific groups of persons and under collective agreements.

As far as provisions affecting specific groups are concerned, we can at best take data on the opportunities available and on the general level of participation in further education and speculate on the respective rates of utilization. Thus, it is fair to assume that a relatively large proportion of works or employees' council members make use of their right to take educational leave. This assumption is supported by the fact that there are numerous opportunities for such persons, together with shop stewards, to attend union-oriented training or further education seminars. There is also the fact that numerous interviews with those taking part in further education seminars have revealed that the above groups of persons have already had a lot of experience of further education (cf. BUVEP-ENDBERICHT, Vol. III, 1979; SCHULENBERG, et al., 1979; BRÖDEL, et al., 1982). No data whatever are available regarding the extent of utilization of the right to educational leave in the case of disabled persons' spokesmen, safety inspectors, youth welfare officers, Federal civil servants and judges, and other groups of persons.

Similary, no information is available on the extent to which provisions for release are made use of.

More statistical material is available on the extent of utilization of the right to release on educational leave on the basis of Länder statutes. Table 1 (see page 28) contains details of the extent of utilization in the five Länder where there are corresponding statutes. In this case we have included the absolute figures for the number of participants in educational leave measures in each of the Länder. The ratio of this figure to the total number of persons entitled to take leave is expressed by the "utilization rate" (U) whereas the "growth rate" (G) tells us the percentage increase or decrease in the number of participants compared to the previous year.

According to the figures in the table (which apply to 1978), a total of around 3.5 million employees were entitled to educational leave with the highest number living in Lower Saxony (2 million) and the lowest in Berlin (100,000 - age-limit!). In 1978, the highest utilization rate was to be found in Berlin, 5.2 %, and the lowest in Hamburg, 1.2 %. Thus, going on these figures, we can say that the right to such leave is only exercised relatively seldomly: around 80,000 from a total of 3.5 million employees.1)

The data available also enable us to supply some more detailed information on the social structure of the participants. As far as the relationship between release on educational leave and the labour market is concerned, details of the participants' school education, vocational position and sex as well as the size of their firm are of particular significance.

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1) As regards the differences between the individual Länder, cf.HÖNIGSBERGER, 1977 and 1979; NUISSL/SUTTER, 1981 and 1982.

Table 1:

Educational leave participants (Fed.Rep.of Germany) on the basis of 5 Länder statutes

Land	Bremen			Hesse		
Year	El part.	U	G	El part.	U	G
1975	3 190	1.0	-	6 407	1.6	-
1976	6 785	2.1	112.7	8 322	2.0	29.9
1977	8 257	2.6	21.7	10 119	2.3	21.6
1978	9 893	3.6	19.8	11 242	2.6	11.1
1979	12 308	4.3	24.4	12 927	3.0	15.0
1980	13 187	4.4	7.9	13 570	3.1	5.0
1981	12 383	4.3	-6.1			
Land	**Lower Saxony**			**Berlin**		
Year	**El part.**	**U**	**G**	**El part.**	**U**	**G**
1975	8 985	0.4	-	4 277	4.0	-
1976	20 168	1.0	124.5	4 946	5.3	15.6
1977	24 625	1.2	22.1	4 563	4.8	-7.7
1978	29 523	1.4	19.9	5 723	5.2	25.4
1979	33 897	1.6	14.8	7 154	6.2	24.0
1980	40 930	1.9	20.7	7 366	6.2	3.0
Land	**Hamburg**			**total**		
Year	**El part.**	**U**	**G**	**El part.**		
1975	3 000	0.5	-	25 859		
1976	3 550	0.5	18.3	43 771		
1977	6 246	0.9	75.9	53 810		
1978	8 353	1.2	33.7	64 734		
1979	?	?	?	66 286 1)		
1980	?	?	?	75 053 1)		

1) excl. Hamburg

Source: NUISSL/SUTTER 1982

Information on the vocational position of those taking part in educational leave measures on the basis of Länder statutes is available from Lower Saxony, Bremen, Berlin and Hesse. In Bremen and Lower Saxony, where there are no age-limits for participants, a relatively large proportion of those taking part were blue-collar workers: in Lower Saxony the figure was 53.7 %, in Bremen 24.3 %. In both cases the figure is about the same as the proportion of blue-collar workers in the whole group of persons entitled to such leave. Around 10 % were trainees (Lower Saxony: 11.1 %; Bremen: 8.5 %) and about 40 % white-collar workers (Lower Saxony: 35.2 %; Bremen 40.7 %). In Bremen the group of persons entitled to leave also includes housewives (represented with 8.1 %), pensioners (7.5 %), unemployed persons and others (3.5 %).

Further to the "official" statistics from the appropriate authorities, there exists in Lower Saxony a report published by the "Association for Private Adult Education" ("Bund für Freie Erwachsenenbildung" - an association of officially-recognized institutions for adult education in Lower Saxony). In 1978 around 80 % of those going on educational leave in Lower Saxony attended courses organized by this Association's members. According to this report, the following types of workers were, proportionately speaking, less well-represented within the whole of blue-collar workers: shift workers (above all, at non-resident seminars), piece-workers (possibly afraid of a cut in wages or, in the case of team piece-work, the difficulties of overcoming the opposition of fellow-workers) and those working in the commercial or service sectors - here, only a small proportion of the labour force belongs to a union making it more difficult to persuade people to apply for educational leave (cf. NUISSL 1980, pp 88 and following). Statistics from Hamburg also support the picture which emerges of differing rates of participation in educational leave according to the sector of the economy concerned: employees from the industrial and manufacturing sector were more strongly represented at educational leave courses than those from the commercial and administrative sector.

In Berlin and Hesse, the vocational distribution is, of course, different because of the age-limit on participation. In these two Länder, trainees make up the majority of participants (Berlin 51.7 %, Hesse 80.1 %) whereas young employees only form 48.3 % and 19.9 % respectively.

As far as the participants' school education is concerned, information is available from Bremen, Hamburg and, to a certain extent, from Lower Saxony. In Bremen roughly every other praticipant (49.2 %) only had a lower-grade secondary school certificate ("Hauptschulabschluß"); 38.4 % had just obtained an intermediate-grade certificate and 12.4 % A-Levels ("Abitur") or some higher academic qualification. If we compare these figures with the mean figures for the whole population, it is evident that the proportion of participants with a better school education is actually higher than their share of the total population: 73 % of Bremen's population have obtained a "Hauptschulabschluß" and nothing more whereas only 21 % have got an intermediate-grade certificate and a mere 6 % "Abitur". In Hamburg the proportion of participants in educational leave courses with just a "Hauptschulabschluß" is lower, at 39.2 %, than in Bremen over and against 40.9 % of Hamburg participants with an intermediate-grade certificate and 18.2 % with "Abitur". The Lower Saxony "Association for Private Adult Education" states in its report on Lower Saxony that in 1978 three quarters of educational leave participants had just a "Hauptschulabschluß"; most of them were taking part in further education measures for the first time, too. This means that persons with a lower level of school education were more heavily represented at educational leave measures in Lower Saxony - which is, of course, in keeping with the high proportion of blue-collar participants - than in Bremen or Hamburg.

Statistics from 4 Länder are available on the proportion of women taking part in such measures. In Bremen and Hesse where educational leave is restricted to the under-25s, only about one third of the participants are women, the respective figures being 37.8% and 33.7%. In Lower Saxony (21.5%) and Hamburg (23.3%) the figure is even less than a quarter. The highest proportion of women participants, relatively speaking, in Bremen, can be explained by the fact that housewives there are entitled to educational leave. In 1978 8.1% of Bremen participants were housewives. Without this group only about 30% of the participants would be women.

Statistics are available from Berlin, Bremen, Hamburg and Lower Saxony on the age of those taking educational leave. In Berlin all participants are under 25 in accordance with the age-limit laid down by law; nearly half of them are in fact under 18. We may assume that in Hesse, where a high proportion of those taking vocational leave are trainees, the percentage of under-18 year olds is even higher. In Lower Saxony, Hamburg and Bremen it is evident - despite the differences in the age-groups selected - that the majority of participants are between 30 and 50 years old. In Lower Saxony and Hamburg just over half comes from this age-group and in Bremen the proportion is likely to be about the same. In Bremen report on the social statistics of educational leave participants describes the "typical" Bremen participant in 1978 as being "between 36 and 50 years of age". Thus, it is true to say that the above-average participation by younger people in further education events is also reflected in the group of persons attending educational leave seminars; and that a relatively high proportion of older persons is only to be found when the group of people entitled to such leave is not just restricted to employees.

As far as the size of the firm from which those taking educational leave come or other details of their occupational background are concerned, statistical material is only available from Hamburg and Lower Saxony (cf. Table 2, p. 32).

Going on the data available, more than half of those taking part in educational leave in Hamburg and Lower Saxony came from large firms with over 1,000 employees. Since the Hamburg report also presents a classification of the total work-force according to the size of their respective firms, it is particularly obvious just how abnormally high the proportion of employees from large firms is among those taking leave: although only 15 % of the work-force in Hamburg belong to firms with 1,000 employees or more, 57 % of all those taking leave come from these firms.

Table 2:

Size of firm which participants in educational leave in Hamburg and Lower Saxony came from (1978)

Size of firm	Hamburg (%)	Lower Saxony (%)
1 - 9 employees	1.3	2.7
10 - 49 employees	4.7	5.3
50 - 199 employees	10.8	8.8
200 - 999 employees	26.2	14.1
1,000 or more employees	57.0	56.0
public-service employees	-	13.1

The figures for Lower Saxony can only be explained by reference to the fact that nearly 25 % of VW's employees in Wolfsburg took advantage of educational leave; in view of the total number of VW workers, this is a figure which is bound to have an effect on the total figures for participants in educational leave. It is also worth noting that 13 % of Lower Saxony's participants were public-service employees. In Hesse the comparable figure was as high as 19 %. The utilization rate for this group of employees is, in this case, 5 % compared to an average rate of 2.6 %. These figures prove again that public-service employees have a much better chance of being released on educational leave than employees in the private sector do.

It is worth noting that in Hamburg as well as in Lower Saxony less than 10 % of those taking educational leave come from small firms (with under 50 employees) although firms of this size employ 40 % of the total work-force (at least as far as Hamburg is concerned). These figures show that the effect of the greater difficulties which employees in small firms encounter in obtaining release for leave is to reduce their share of the total number of participants. The most significant difficulties may be described as: opposition on the part of the employer and fellow-workers (who often have to take on the work usually done by the person on leave), a lack of in-firm information on the opportunities available and, generally speaking, a low level of union activity.

All in all, those involved in educational planning, representatives of the various interests involved and researchers estimate the numbers taking part in educational leave on the basis of statutory provisions in the 5 Länder as being low.1) A "utilization rate" of only 4 % is seen as "relatively low" (by the DGB representative) or "as yet, not particularly high" (by the employers' representative). Moreover, the former thinks that the "growth rate" of participants in educational leave only appears to be rising; in his opinion, the numbers taking part are remaining constant or even falling, if one considers the fact that the number of unemployed (in other words, the number of persons who - with the exception of Bremen - are not entitled to leave) has increased considerably.

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1) All in all, confirmation of the numbers taking part, their structure and the range of course contents is also to be found in the representative survey in "Berichtssystems Weiterbildungsverhalten" (1980); as far as vocational training goes, cf. as well SAUTER/FINK 1980.

A number of different theories has been put forward from various sides to explain the relatively low participation rates. Evaluation of these hypotheses, the main ones of which are described below, also vary:

- Educational leave statutes have only been in existence for between four and six years and, thus, those entitled to leave often know relatively little about them. What is more, the provisions themselves are also quite complicated.

- Tied up with the above-mentioned theory is the hypothesis that the organizers of educational leave courses and the institutions responsible have not yet developed a sufficiently wide range of courses so that a potentially larger demand for educational leave cannot be met - neither quantitatively nor qualitatively.

- One argument, which is usually put forward by employers and also refers to the "supply" side, is that the contents of a considerable number of courses are of a political or general educational nature - things which those entitled to leave are not really interested in because the main interest of employees is in educational leave to improve their vocational skills. This was the line taken by the employers' representative during our interview - cf., as well, ALLGAYER, 1980.

- Occasionally, the attempt is made to explain the low participation rate, at least in part by the fact that there is a lack of adequate information on the opportunities available so that potential participants do not hear about what is taking place.

- One explanation which is frequently given suggests that employees are not able to claim their right to leave because of strong opposition to this on the part of employers. This theory is mainly put forward by union representatives (e.g. in our interview with the DGB representative) and also by those who organize educational leave (cf. HESSISCHER JUGENDRING, 1980) as well as by researchers (cf. BUVEP - ENDBERICHT, Vol. III, 1979). The employers do not go along with this and point out that, in their opinion, opposition to justifiable requests for release on educationally-relevant courses does not exist (cf. ALLGAYER, 1980; the employers' representatives interviewed put forward this argument).

- An equally controversial hypothesis points to the fear of losing one's job or, at least, of being at a disadvantage at work which, particularly in periods of high unemployment and economic crisis, prevents employees from putting in a request for release. Union representatives place a good deal of weight on this theory and, indeed, several surveys have discovered cases where such fear did exist. Employers' representatives, on the other hand, feel that this theory does not hold water because they believe that claiming one's right to educational leave does not result in any disadvantages at work and certainly does not endanger a person's job.

- Finally, a further hypothesis suggests that taking educational leave will meet with the resistance of some fellow-workers so long as it is not seen at work as being a matter of course. Here, the opposition of fellow-workers is seen as having a considerable effect on those interested in educational leave.

In the final analysis, it has to be pointed out that no reliable findings are available to prove the validity of these hypotheses one way or the other. However, those representing all the interested parties and those involved in educational planning expect the utilization rate to rise in the medium - or long-term and reckon that, in individual cases, suitable measures are needed to enable those entitled to leave actually to take advantage of the opportunities available (cf. NUISSL/SUTTER 1981).

2.1.3. Influence of educational leave on the labour market

To sum up, it can be said that in the Federal Republic 3.5 million employees are entitled to educational leave on the basis of Länder statutes, around 1.5 million on the basis of collective agreements and an unknown number as a result of other statutes or provisions. If one assumes that a number of these provisions and, thus, several of these groups of persons entitled to leave overlap (and that, when this is the case, the most far-reaching provisions take precedent), one may arrive at a figure of around 5 million German employees who are entitled to educational leave. In an equally generalized manner, one may say that the right to leave means, on average, one week's release from work for educational purposes per year. Of course, the above statements are of a very general nature but they do help to illustrate the framework within which the discussion on educational leave in the Federal Republic is taking place.

Complementing these statistics with details of the actual utilization of the right to educational leave, it can be said that around 80 000 people a year take such leave on the basis of statutory provisions with probably 20-30 000 more on the basis of other provisions. So, when we refer to participants in educational leave measures in the Federal Republic, we are talking of numbers in the order of just over 100 000 people (for 1980) who are released on educational leave for one week per year.

As far as the social structure of participants in such courses is concerned, certain areas of particular concentration are evident: there are hardly any participants from small firms with the majority coming from large ones; women are quite clearly poorly represented; in contrast, young employees are very strongly represented; finally, employees with poor educational qualifications (unskilled and semi-skilled workers, shift workers, etc.) also take part in such courses less frequently, relatively speaking, than do other groups of employees.

In view of the quantitative and qualitative dimensions involved, it is hardly surprising that most of those interviewed are slightly amazed at being asked about the actual influence of educational leave provisions on the labour market. It is generally assumed that the effect on the labour market is virtually nil or, at best, extremely slight. This should be taken into account when, in the following, some more varied viewpoints and statements are described.

2.1.3.1. Manpower withdrawal effects within firms

Generally speaking, it may be said that, at present, practically no withdrawal effect is discernible in firms where employees have taken educational leave. A simple bit of arithmetic serves to illustrate this well. An employee can work a maximum of 52 weeks a year. If one subtracts 2 weeks for public holidays etc., we are left with 50 working-weeks per employee. Thus, one working-week amounts 2 % of the total manhours worked per year. So, if all the employees of a firm take one week's educational leave, the firm will lose 2 % of the total manhours worked (cf. SCHULTZE, 1978). This is considerably less than other percentage figures for factors which firms take into account when planning their total manhours worked per year. For example, both sides of industry say that, generally, a 7 % loss due to sickness is deducted from the total number of manhours worked irrespective of other factors. Thus, the present rate of utilization in fact only means a minimal reduction of the total manhours worked. An average utilization rate of 5 % (which is indeed a very generous estimate) means a reduction of 0.1 % in the total manhours worked. At the VW works at Wolfsburg, where there is the highest utilization rate in the whole of Germany (nearly 25 % of the employees entitled to educational leave took it in 1981), the figure for the reduction of the total manhours worked is thus 0.4 %. Expressed in absolute terms, this means that only in a firm with 1,000 employees would 1 additional job be created by employees' taking educational leave - that is, in purely mathematical terms. At the VW works, 1 additional job could be created per 250 employees in order to compensate for the loss in manhours worked due to employees' being released on educational leave.

However, the above calculations do not correspond to the real-life situation in firms. Written statements from employers and the interviews conducted with such persons have shown that when structural reductions occur in the total manhours worked per year, e.g. through sickness or, as in this case, through educational leave, other measures are taken before any thought is given to the creation of new jobs. These measures are, in the main:

- overtime by fellow-workers to make up for the loss of production during the week of educational leave or overtime by the employee involved, either before and after the period of educational leave;

- a cut-back in production, something which numerous firms are turning to as an alternative measure, especially in view of the difficult economic situation and frequent periods of short-time working (e.g. the VW works);

- overcoming the loss of production by means of overtime;
- overcoming the loss of production through increased rationalization of jobs.

In the comments made by the Federal Union of Employers' Associations(Bundesvereinigung der Deutschen Arbeitgeberverbände) on the shortage of manpower potential (BDA, Mit Wachstum gegen Arbeitslosigkeit, Cologne, 1977), the above stategies were mentioned as being measures to counter the reduction in manhours worked. That they applied to claiming of educational leave, too, was confirmed in interviews with employers; trade union representatives also confirmed the reality of their existence. In a study on "Recurrent Education and Educational Leave", we find the following: "The crucial point in any implementation of educational leave aimed at having a discernible manpower withdrawal effect on the labour market is that firms pass on this manpower withdrawal effect, caused by the participation of their employees in educational leave measures, in the form of additional manpower to the external labour market. The practice up to now, as far as evidence is available, has worked against this goal in that the gaps left behind by those on leave have frequently been stopped by means of flexibility in the work organisation. It is not untypical for those taking leave to have to make up for the loss of manhours by various forms of extra work before or after the leave." (BRÖDEL et al., 1981, 98; cf. WOYDT, 1982, 15). In the 1977/78 Annual Report by the "Sachverständigenrat" (Panel of Experts for Assessing Overall Economic Trends), "Mehr Wachstum, mehr Beschäftigung" (Stuttgart, 1978), we find the following: "The most recent surveys carried out amongst businesses by the Institute for Economic Research in Munich have shown that, for example, a reduction in working hours in industry - either by reducing the working-week by two hours or increasing annual holiday by several days - would result in an increased manpower requirement equivalent to about half of the working time lost through the reduction. Moreover, with administrative/clerical jobs, a lot less additional labour would be employed than with jobs in the manufacturing sector. In the short term, the positive effects on employment would be a lot less, according to the surveys carried out, because businesses would presumably try to make up as far as possible for the loss of normal working time by means of overtime and rationalisation - the latter being a longer-term measure, too."

An important point which was mentioned in our interviews, to an equal extent by representatives of employers and employees, was that if there is an increase in the utilization rate, it would be chiefly employees in the lesser-skilled jobs who would take educational leave. However, these employees (from the so-called "educationally-disadvantaged" target groups) do just the kind of work which can, in the case of such leave, be made up for by their fellow-workers' taking on extra work or doing overtime - much more easily than is the case with more highly-qualified employees. Thus, the fact is that especially with these groups of workers there is less chance of new jobs being created to make up for the "loss" of individual employees going on educational leave.

The problem of the loss of manhours worked per year is slightly different for large firms than for small ones. Whereas large firms are able to get round the problem of a reduction in annual or weekly manhours worked fairly easily through organizational and structural measures, it is more difficult for the smaller firms to fulfil their orders and meet production targets. Thus, with a small firm employing four people contracted to meet a delivery date, the loss of one of these employees means a reduction of the working capacity of 25 %, which can lead to considerable problems (cf. WOYDT, 1982, pp 5 and following). On the one hand, the DGB representative assumes in such a case that a small firm is more likely to be forced to make up for the loss by taking on another person; however, he does concede at the same time that small firms do not have the necessary means to create new jobs. Therefore, trade unions are thinking about a plan for re-distributing funds through which firms where less than the average amount of educational leave is taken are forced to pay a certain amount into a central pool.1) However, something of this nature was "amended out" of the 1974 Lower Saxony Act even before it came into force. It is more likely, in the opinion of other experts interwiewed, that employees of small firms have greater difficulties in obtaining the approval of their employers to take part in educational leave seminars.

To sum up, on the question of manpower withdrawal in firms and the creation of new jobs through educational leave provisions it may be said that, in view of the existing provisions and, above all, the present utilization rates, we cannot expect the creation of new jobs by these means. Irrespective of this, there is still the fact that it is possible through employees' claiming educational leave, to bring about a reduction, albeit a slight one, in their working hours.

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1) WOYDT (1982, p. 7 and following) puts forward a model whereby the government would bear the cost of continuing wage payments in the case of smaller and medium-sized firms.

2.1.3.2. Effects external to the firms

As far as the effects of educational leave provisions external to the firms are concerned, we should take a look, in particular, at various groups of unemployed persons. Thus, educational planners have, on several occasions, put forward the view that educational leave is a suitable instrument for reducing mental, emotional and social pressures on the unemployed and maintaining their contact to the "world of work" by offering them a regular chance of taking part in such courses. In the Federal Republic, some pilot projects, among other things, were carried out in which educational leave measures for the unemployed were developed and then introduced. For example, the "Gesprächswochen für arbeitslose Frauen" (Discussion weeks for unemployed women) were concerned with talking about and overcoming the particular social and psychological difficulties of this group of unemployed people as well as helping them find a new job. There have also been vocationally-oriented educational leave seminars for the unemployed (cf. KEJCZ et al., 1982). However, one must not forget that such measures cannot provide participants with courses, the contents of which are designed to pass on job skills, and cannot serve as a vehicle for creating or arranging for new jobs.

Another aspect of such measures is the use of unemployed teachers and the unemployed from other occupational groups as teaching staff for educational leave courses (cf. WOYDT 1982, p. 13). Here, there would seem to be a possibility of creating more jobs for qualified teaching staff through extending the educational leave programme. However, the practice up to now has shown that relatively few teachers on educational leave courses have been employed on a full-time basis; most of the teaching on such courses - the number of teachers required is relatively large- has been done by part-time staff taken on by the organizers of educational leave on the basis of a work or term contract. Thus, there is at present no foreseeable chance of unemployed teachers obtaining employment through the educational leave programme.

2.1.3.3. Vocational qualifications

Numerous researchers and educational planners assume that educational leave can play a part in increasing job-related skills.

However, one should generally point out that if one looks at the way in which educational leave is practised in the Federal Republic, it is obvious that vocational or job-related subjects do not feature highly among the contents of courses available. What this means in practice is not just that in these Länder where statutory provisions apply, the emphasis is placed on course contents from the field of political education, in some cases directly through a grading of the financial subsidies; it also means that, as a rule, educational measures aimed at conveying job skills presuppose other means or periods of learning. For example, measures which are aimed at the conveyance of job skill and are relevant at an inter-firm level, always last for more than one week per year; on the other hand, in-firm course contents and such as are applicable at an in-firm practical level are excluded from most of the existing educational leave provisions.

Thus, the job-related influence of educational leave on the job prospects and vocational situation of employees is, in those Länder where there are statutory provisions for job-related course contents, limited to courses providing additional qualifications, on top of those which participants already have, or refresher courses: e.g. "REFA" courses, commercial or technical seminars, language courses. However, at the present point in time, it is not yet possible to determine whether it is, in fact, realistic under the present provisions to expect much in the way of job-orientation from educational leave.

In this respect, too, there is a significant difference in the positions of the employers and the unions. The former are interested in employees' being released on educational leave (and in the appropriate provisions to this end as well) which enables the employees to acquire job skills that are of immediate use to the employers themselves; the latter, however, are more interested in a furtherance of the politico-social education of the employees. The present state of affairs vis-à-vis educational leave in the Federal Republic indicates that the main emphasis is on the second of the two standpoints. In-firm advanced and further training is not covered by educational leave provisions and the same is true of training seminars directed solely towards vocational practice within a firm. One important symptom of the present situation is the fact that, up to now, there has been no discussion at all about introducing certificates or any other proof that employees have taken part in educational leave.

To sum up, it may be said that, at present, the effects of educational leave by way of manpower withdrawal, reduction in unemployment or vocational training are, as far as the Federal Republic is concerned, hardly worth mentioning.

The unions do not back up their demands for educational leave by pointing to its manpower withdrawal effect on the labour market but rather by arguing in terms of educational policy; the unions' statement about educational leave having a withdrawal effect on the labour market was made in a different context - in listing the factors having such an effect, the unions happened to mention educational leave as one of them. The actual influence of educational leave on the labour market is not seen by the unions in a much more favourable light than by the employers.

2.1.3.4 Prospects of extending educational leave

Hopes of an increase in the manpower withdrawal effects of educational leave in the Federal Republic have to be concentrated initially on an increase in the utilization rates. Nevertheless, there is, in fact, no chance of their reaching more than 2 % of total manhours worked per year, i.e. a lot less than the lump figure which is taken as the loss due to sickness.

There is talk in the Federal Republic of extending the educational leave provisions themselves, but any changes would only amount to modifications of the present system. The main aspects which are being discussed here and are relevant to the relationship between educational leave and the labour market are as follows:

- The unions are primarily demanding an extension of the collective agreement provisions concerning educational leave and, in particular, the inclusion of such provisions in more collective agreements than has previously been the case. During the past three years the unions got nowhere with this demand because of the opposition of the employers in negotiations with the unions - this is the reason why there is talk of educational leave being one of the items on the employers' "black list".

- In several Länder there is also talk of bringing in bills with educational leave provisions similar to those which exist in the five Länder with statutory provisions. However, these plans have only reached a reasonably advanced stage in North Rhine Westphalia; in the other Länder parliaments, attempts during the past two years to bring in such bills were rejected each time.

- In Berlin and Hesse, the two Länder with an age-limit of 25 on those entitled to take such leave, there has been talk in the past few years of raising the age-limit or even of completely abolishing it. However, the changes in the parliamentary constellation in these two Länder brought an end to these plans.

- In those Länder where statutory provisions exist and even in some areas where collective agreements with appropriate provisions apply, the cuts in spending on general and further education have meant that the number of educational leave opportunities and the number of participants have been tending to fall or least have stopped growing.

Generally speaking, one can say that, as far as the Federal Republic of Germany is concerned, there is, at present, no prospect of any extension of the educational leave provisions (apart from the possibility of statutory provisions being brought in in North Rhine Westphalia).

2.2.
Italy

2.2. Educational leave and the labour market in Italy

The discussion about the possibility of introducing educational leave in Italy was closely tied up with the radical technological and social upheaval with took place in that country in the late sixties and early seventies. To this extent, educational leave in Italy is closely linked to the development of business interests and structures. There is also a close tie-up between the discussions about the "150-hour" model of educational leave (the main type of leave in Italy) and the general school system. The latter is considered by a good many politicians who are concerned with education and by educational planners to be extraordinarily deficient.

In the context of this study, i.e. with regard to the relationship between educational leave and the labour market in Italy, another important fact is that both the vocational training set-up and the adult education system are underdeveloped in Italy - the courses available lack variety, there is no established system of leaving certificates, there are no clearly-defined aims and the opportunities of making use of what has been learned are extremely limited.

2.2.1. Educational leave provisions

In Italy educational leave only exists on the basis of collective agreements. The starting-point for and indeed the model of later collective agreements was one such agreement concluded in spring 1973. The negotiating parties were the Metal Workers' Federation (FRM) and the employees' associations for the private and public sectors. After protracted negotiations, in which the Ministry of Labour was also involved, an agreement was reached which included, for the first time, provisions for paid educational leave.

This model collective agreement was then followed by corresponding agreements in other branches of industry and areas of employment. In a list of these collective agreements concluded in 1973/74 (TALIANI, 1976, 34), 15 are mentioned covering, in particular, the large metal-, wood- and cork-processing industries, the equally large textile and clothing industries, local-government authorities, hospitals and agricultural workers.

One also has to point to the differences between the various agreements as regards the nature of the right to educational leave contained in their provisions. Thus, there is a) the collective right to educational leave (e.g. the metal-workers' agreement) with a limit to the number of hours which an individual can take out of the common pool; b) the individual right to leave (e.g. the pottery- and glass-workers' agreement) with limits to the number of hours an individual employee can take; c) the individual right without any limitation of the hours taken (e.g. the agricultural workers' agreement) but with stricter decision-making powers for unions and employers.

Persons entitled to leave

In Italy any employee in an industry or sector covered by one of the collective agreements is entitled to take advantage of the "150-hours". Mid-1974, a total of 4.5 million employees, corresponding to about 26 % of the work force, was entitled to paid educational leave on the basis of the various agreements. At present (1982), it is assumed that around 11 million employees are entitled to educational leave on this basis. Two reservations must be mentioned here:

a) An employee may only take advantage of paid educational leave along the lines the "150-hours" model on condition that he is prepared to give up some of his own time to take part in such a course over and above the period of release from work. In some agreements, particularly in the metal industry, this means that paid leave is only approved if the employee in question is willing to give up an equal amount of his own free time, either in the form of non-paid leave, holidays or leisure time, to take part in such a course. In each case the individual employee is required, on applying for paid educational leave or at some later stage, to supply proof of his regular attendance and details of the entire course attended.

b) Besides this pre-condition of educational leave, there is also a clause in nearly all collective agreements stipulating a maximum percentage of employees per firm entitled to take educational leave. This figure has nearly always been fixed at 2 % of the work force. Thus, the metal-workers' agreement provides, for example, for each firm or production unit (in the case of large firms) to grant its employees educational leave in accordance with a method of calculating the total hours based on taking the maximum figure of 2 % per firm over a period of 3 years. The formula for this is $H = 10 \times 3 N$ whereby H represents the number of hours available and N the average number of employees over the year (i.e. 10 hours per employee per year). This maximum quota for each firm not only serves as a factual restriction on the total amount of educational leave but also a subjective one in that if, within a firm , too many requests for leave are made at the same time during negotiations between unions and the management, criteria will be laid down to decide the order in which educational leave is to be granted.

One should also take into account the fact that some collective agreements limit the number of times an employee may take educational leave. Some agreements lay down that employees may not take educational leave more than three times during their working life.

The job of choosing which employees are to enjoy educational leave is left to the "Consiglio di fabbrica" (comparable to the works council in the Federal Republic of Germany) which is responsible for the production unit in question. In practice, this body has to decide who may take educational leave and for how long. The employers are given three months' notice of course participants and receive from time to time notification of the actual attendance by their employees at the courses in question.

In the majority of cases, the unions have developed, on a regional basis, selection guidelines which are designed to remind the "works council" members of the necessity of giving fair consideration to all the various groups within the work force. Whether or not an employee belongs to the union does not seem to be one of the criteria. The attempt is also made to avoid any privileged treatment for members of the "works council" (cf. v. MOLTKE/SCHNEEVOIGT 1977, 198).

Contents

The main object of the "150-hour" courses is to enable participants to catch up on school-leaving qualifications ("licenza media"). This aim is pursued, on the one hand, by means of a kind of "participant-oriented" schooling where the curiculum is very similar to that of schools within the general education system, and, on the other hand, by means of "monographic" courses which tackle the syllabus in the form of separate job-related subjects and which are mainly taught by university or college lecturers.

In order to understand the point of these general educational qualifications, one has to remember the deficiencies of the system of general schooling in Italy. The majority of pupils is not able to obtain any kind of school-leaving certificate during the eight years of compulsory schooling. According to the 1971 census, 76.6 % of all Italians aged 16 or older had not obtained the "licenza media" (in 1961, the figure was 84.8 %); 32.8 % had not even got the "licenza elementare", the successful conclusion to five years at elementary school. A closer analysis of the situation reveals the extent to which Southern Italy, women and senior citizens are at a particular disadvantage. In 1973, only 20.4 % of employees in industry had the "licenza media", 53.3 % merely the "licenza elementare" and 12.5 % were without any sort of school qualification. Therefore, the "150-hour" courses were directed in a critical sense at the deficiencies of the system of general schooling and had two aims: first, to make up for the lack of a general educational qualification ("licenza media") in the case of many employees; and, secondly, to promote a reform of the school system in its substance and structures. In guaranteeing that the courses from this programme should take place within the scope of the normal system of training and be furnished with the normal leaving certificates, the unions had given the matter utmost priority.

Courses with job-related contents, such the CRACIS courses[1], were rejected by the unions as a possible framework for the "150-hours" and are in fact excluded from the collective agreements. Hence, the subjects covered by these "150-hours" either correspond to those in the field of general school education or are to do with political education. The intention is that these subjects should be linked to the interests, the skills and the respective spheres of responsibility which employees, and above all workers from the various firms, have. What this means in practice is as follows:

a) The so-called "150-hours", which tend to be oriented towards school subjects, usually add up to at least 350 hours so that those taking part have to give up some of their free time. The frame of reference of these courses is determined by the demands of the final examination ("licenza media") and has been set down in a decree from the Ministry of Education. Those who take part in these courses are required to attend lessons and sit examinations in three subjects: Italian, a foreign language and mathematics. There is extremely close co-ordination of these three subjects with the pre-requisite for this being that they are all taught with reference to one particular interdisciplinary topic which, in its turn, is related to the participants' individual and collective experience, their social background and work situation. For example, a topic such as the profitability of housing/accommodation costs can provide a good deal of teaching material for general mathematics. Many courses begin with a fairly long phase in which the participants talk about themselves, write down biographical details and finally produce some sort of a synopsis (cf. WEICK, 1976; FAGGIONI, 1980).

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[1] The CRACIS courses ("Corsi di richiamo e di aggiornamento culturale di istruzione secondaria") were introduced in September 1959. Their contents are mainly of a vocational nature but they do not have any of the typical characteristics of educational leave (e.g. release, continued wage payments); cf. FAGGIONI, 1980, pp. 168 and following.

b) Little information is available on the contents of the monographic courses which have mainly been conceived and implemented through co-operation between universities and trade unions. The general situation seems to be that these monographic courses are not planned or carried out according to some systematic plan. The personal interests and contacts of the various lecturers and the regional or other specific interests of the various unions most certainly play a major part here. Although no detailed reports are available, the increased number of participants in such courses would lead us to assume that they are fulfilling the wishes of certain groups of employees.

Duration and structure of release

As indicated by their very name, the duration of the educational leave provisions in the Italian collective agreements is worked out in hours. The basis for these calculations was the very

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first collective agreement containing such provisions, that concluded by the metal workers on April 19, 1973. This agreement provided for a maximum of "150-hours" over a period of 3 years whereby the total amount could also be claimed within one year. Similar provisions are to be found in other agreements; only the figures are different. Some examples are given below:

- In the collective agreements negotiated for the pottery and abrasives industries (July 17, 1973) and the textile and clothing industries (July 20, 1973) for a total of 745 000 employees, educational leave in the order of 120 hours per year is provided for; however, only 40 hours are paid leave (the maximum quota per firm is 2.5 %).

- For the field of local-government administration, a collective agreement concluded on March 5, 1974 laid down, for a total of 450 000 employees, 50 hours' educational leave per year and determined which persons should benefit from this - however, there was no provision for a continuance of wage payments.

- A collective agreement signed on March 18, 1974 applying to 210 000 employees in the rubber, plastics and linoleum industries provides for "150-hours" of educational leave per employee, of which only 50 hours are paid for (here, the maximum quota per firm is 3 %).

The differences in the provisions show clearly that the metal-workers' agreement provides for the longest period of release; only a few of the later agreements went as far as the provisions in this first agreement.

It is important to realise that employees cannot claim their educational leave en bloc - it has to be taken piecemeal. This is mainly due to the fact that the courses available take into account the amount of free time which those taking part have to give up and thus go on into the evening or are held at weekends. The most common form of educational leave is that an employee is released from work for one afternoon a week over a certain period of time. This aspect of educational leave in Italy is particularly important when considering the manpower withdrawal effect on the labour market.

Financial aspects

If a continuance of wage payments is provided for by the collective agreement in question, the employers are basically required to bear these costs. But one should not forget the fact that between half and two thirds of the time spent on educational leave is not paid for. Some of the collective agreements even provide for unpaid leave, thus reducing the income of those employees taking part.

Most of the "150-hour" courses are paid for out of public funds. The Italian Ministry of Education pays the salaries of those teachers employed full-time on such courses (see below Section 2.2.3.) If trade-union members act as lecturers, they are paid for by the unions. University lecturers and other members of staff at universities employed as lecturers for the monographic courses originally carried out all this teaching in their spare time, in other words at their own expense. It was a case of private individuals motivated by their own personal or political persuasions. In the meantime, some provisions have been introduced to apply to members of the staff at universities/colleges - provided they are not part-time employees and do work as lecturers - enabling the time spent teaching the "150-hour" courses to count towards the number of hours they are expected to teach at university. Any other expenses, such as costs, still have to be borne by those teachers who are not employed full-time on these courses. As far as the provision of rooms, books and other teaching materials is concerned, the regional and local authorities see to this. But there is very little money available to provide the teachers with financial support. In exceptional cases, those taking part in the "150-hour" courses can obtain grants or get their travelling expenses paid via the regional or local authorities ("ente publici"). The fact that the financing of these "150-hour" courses has been totally inadequate in the 10 years they have been taking place has led to some difficulties. Thus, inadequate funds were often a problem - this led to one of the main conflict situations during the first year of these courses' taking place in Milan. The regional authorities wanted to place the financing of one aspect of the "150-hour" courses in the hands of the Catholic organisation, but the metal-workers' union rejected this proposal. In the end, the problem was overcome by setting up a special institution under the joint chairmanship of union and government representatives which then assumed responsibility, with the participation of the Catholic organisation, for the financing of these courses.

2.2.2. Educational leave in Italy - statistical data and other empirical aspects

All in all, very little data is available for the ten years of educational leave in Italy. The most comprehensive information is to be found in an investigation carried out in 1974 (CENSIS, 1974) which, of course, is not particularly revealing on account of the extremely short period for which educational leave had been in existence. The reasons why so little data is available are certainly to be found in the differences in the provisions of the various collective agreements, the differences in the conditions prevailing within individual collective-agreement areas, and the regional differences in the structure of educational leave, to name just a few. Data are available from several case studies and regional investigations[1] (cf. v.MOLTKE/SCHNEEVOIGT, 1977;

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[1] Besides those mentioned, there are, above all, the following studies: GURRIERI, G., Tormare a scuola da protagonisti: L'esperienza delle 150 ore. Collana della Regione Toscana, Politica Culturale 1975/5; BOSSI, P. et. al., Corso 150 ore Università Bologna, Bologna 1974; BARBAGU, M. et.al., Le 150 ore all Università di Bologna 1974; PEPE, G.R., La scuola delle 150 ore: Esperienzi, documenti verifiche,Milano 1975

FAGGIONI, 1980). A summary for the period up to 1977 is to be found in BLUMENTHAL, 1980.

As far as the issue at stake here is concerned, importance is not only to be attached to empirical information concerning the participants in educational leave courses but also their teachers/lecturers. The latter are particularly important in view of the fact that educational leave in Italy is very closely linked to the school system (via the aim of obtaining a "licenza media" qualification) - thus, the question is how significant these courses are for the job market for teachers. For this reason, the participants and the teachers/lecturers are dealt with separately in the following.

Participants in the "150-hour" courses - structural details

Blumenthal, in his summary of the situation in 1977 (1980, 162), arrived at a total of 89 977 educational leave participants in Italy (cf. Table 3). No detailed information is available on the total number of participants in later years. One can only make a cautious estimate. With around 7 000 educational leave courses per year and an average of 15 participants per course (cf. here FAGGIONI, 1980), there are at present around 100 000 people taking educational leave per year. However, one has to differentiate between the number who have enlisted for such courses and the number actually present - the latter figure is likely to be 10 - 20 % lower, principally because of the piecemeal nature of educational leave in Italy (cf. here FAGGIONI, 1980, pp. 178 and following). It would appear that the maximum quota per firm of 2 - 3 %, as laid down in the collective agreements, has never been reached; employers and unions estimate the actual utilization rate at around 1 %. The utilization rates vary according to the size of the firm.

Table 3:

"150-hour" courses aimed at re-taking the compulsory school-leaving examination (1974-77)

No. of courses	1974	1975	1976	1977
Italy as a whole	776	2 036	3 696	4 079
Northern Italy	532	1 092	1 647	1 803
Central Region	138	503	709	759
Southern Italy + Islands	106	441	1 340	1 517

No. of participants	1974	1975	1976	1977
Italy as a whole	14 237	28 750	77 436	89 977
Northern Italy	9 327	19 665	33 237	36 302
Central Region	2 819	10 177	14 889	16 622
Southern Italy + Islands	2 091	8 948	29 310	37 052

Source: BLUMENTHAL, 1980, 162.

First, the situation vis-à-vis employment: data from two investigations are available - one covered participants in the regions of Rovigo, Genua, La Spezia and Livorno (1977/78, FAGGIONI, 1980), and the other, as yet unpublished, the Rome region (1981). Despite differences in the categorization used, we can discover certain things in common. Around 10 % of participants were young school-leavers still looking for work - in 1977/78, this figure was lower and in 1981 higher (cf. here Table 5). A further 10 % were unemployed and again the figure had increased by 1981. Only the study of the Rome region contains information on the proportion of women participants - 20 % in 1981. All in all, it is clear that around two thirdsof participants are in some form of employment.

Secondly, the sex, age and school education of participants: the findingsof the 1974 and 1976 CENSIS investigations and of the 1977/78 one mentioned above reveal that the predominance of the "150-hour" courses has grown less from year to year. There have also been changes in the age structure of participants - according to the 1974, 1976 and 1977/78 figures, there has been a clear increase in the proportion of young people under 20. This trend was also confirmed by the 1981 Rome study where 30.1 % of participants were aged between 16 and 18. Some data is also available on the participants' school education. According to the findings of the 1974 and 1976 CENSIS studies and the 1977/78 one, around two thirds of participants did not have an elementary school-leaving certificate. The findings of the 1981 Rome study, however, differ in that only 13.8 % were without an elementary school certificate.

Finally, some data on the occupational position and the size of firm in respect of those participants (two thirds of the total) who are in some form of employment. At the time of the

1974 CENSIS study, around 90 % were unskilled, semi-skilled or skilled workers ; nearly 70 % came from large factories with more than 500 employees and a further 18 % from factories with 10 - 500 employees (CENSIS, Vol. 2, 25). According to the 1977/78 study, structural changes had occurred: the proportion of blue-collar workers had fallen (cf. Table 4). Although no details are available on the size of the firms participants were employed at, one can assume that the blue-collar workers continued to come mainly from large firms - statements by the experts we interviewed in Italy confirmed this.

An important aspect of the empirical side of the "150-model" of educational leave in Italy has been the structural changes within the group of participants which have occurred over the past few years. Some of these changes are evident from the above-mentioned data. In the discussions with the experts on educational leave in Italy, two facts in particular were emphasized as being extremely important:

- First, there is the fact that, as far as all those involved in the "150-hour" courses can ascertain, the number enrolling for these courses is falling. A steady increase in the number enrolling in the first 2 years (up to 1976) was followed, from 1978/79 onwards, by a gradual fall in the relative number of participants (i.e. the number of participants in relation to those entitled to educational leave) which, in the meantime, has turned into a slight drop in real terms.

- The second important fact is that of the structural changes within the group of participants. Here, attention is drawn to the rapid drop in the proportion of blue-collar workers taking part in the "150-hour" courses and the equally rapid increase in the proportion of young people, unemployed persons, housewives and white-collar workers. This has led to a complete reversal,proportionally speaking, of the

Table 4:

Participants according to sex and occupation (%)

OCCUPATION	Year	males	females	m+f
Day labourers	1974	0.3	0.6	28.6
	1976	-.-	-.-	1.4
	1978/79	0.5	-.-	0.3
Unskilled workers etc.	1974	24.3	52.2	28.6
	1976	-.-	-.-	18.5
	1978/79	52.8	16.1	37.9
Servants and domestic helpers etc.	1974	1.8	3.7	2.1
	1976	-.-	-.-	7.2
	1978/79	6.8	8.8	7.6
Skilled workers	1974	67.4	24.9	60.9
	1976	-.-	-.-	28.6
	1978/79	12.6	2.3	8.5
Small-scale craftsmen and/or tradesmen	1974	1.8	3.2	2.0
	1976	-.-	-.-	-.-
	1978/79	1.7	2.0	1.8
Merchants and traders	1974	0.5	0.8	0.6
	1976	-.-	-.-	-.-
	1978/79	2.2	1.4	1.9
Farmers	1974	0.3	-.-	0.2
	1976	-.-	-.-	1.2
	1978/79	3.4	0.3	2.2
White-collar workers	1974	1.6	2.5	1.8
	1976	- -	-.-	2.8
	1978/79	1.0	1.0	1.0
Hospital staff	1974	0.8	3.9	1.3
	1976	-.-	-.-	10.2
	1978/79	-.-	-.-	-.-
Housewives	1974	-.-	6.3	1.0
	1976	-.-	-.-	7.9
	1978/79	-.-	43.8	17.8
Others/ nil response	1974	1.1	1.9	1.2
	1976	-.-	-.-	16.5
	1978/79	14.0	7.5	11.4

Source: CENSIS; 1979, Vol 2, 86 (for 1974 and 1976); FAGGIONI,(for 1978/79).

way in which the total group of participants is divided up. This can be clearly shown in the district of Rome where records of the structural make-up of those taking educational leave have been kept from 1974 up the present day (1982) - see Table 5. According to these figures, the proportion of blue-collar workers fell from 97.2 % to 39.4 % in 1982.

Various theories were put forward during our interviews in Italy to explain these developments:

- One theory turns to the experience of the last ten years and points out that the reaction of blue-collar workers in the various regions of Italy to the "150-hour" courses was different. According to this theory, the "150-hour" model was the aim and, finally, the achievement of workers in the big industrial areas of Northern Italy, above all Turin and Milan. As well as the existence of an enormous difference between Italy's North and the South, where there is a much lower degree of industrialization, a higher level of unemployment and a totally different mentality, there are also, according to this theory, regional differences in Northern Italy: for example, there are hardly any workers in the "provinces" who do not have some sort of spare-time job, e.g. in a small handicraft business, a restaurant or an inn, etc. A spare-time job such as these would appear to reduce the interest of the workers involved in confrontations within the firm and in professional advancement.

- The decrease in the number of blue-collar workers taking part in such courses is explained as follows: besides referring to the fall in the total number of blue-collar workers, it is pointed out that although the demand for adult education as a whole is growing, the demand among blue-collar workers is falling off. This is due to the fact that for this group of workers, there are no other opportunities of adult education with which they could carry on or supplement their "150-hour" courses.

Table 5:

Structural developments vis-a-vis the total group of participants in the Rome District (%)

OCCUPATION		Date of survey							
		1974/75		1976/77		1980/81		1981/82	
UNEMPLOYED PERSONS	Manufacturing Industry	83.9	= 97.2	22.2	= 68.1	9.8	= 48.1	-	= 39.4
	Agriculture	1.9		1.4		0.7		-	
	Administration etc.	10.5		27.5		26.1		-	
	Trade and Industry	0.9		17.0		11.5		-	
UNEMPLOYED PERSONS and HOUSEWIVES	First job-seekers	-.-		6.9	21.8 = = 31.9	16.9	37.2 = = 51.9	-	= 60.6
	Unemployed	-.-		14.9		16.8		-	
	Housewives	2.8		10.1		18.2		-	
		100.0		100.0		100.0			

Source: unpublished survey by P. Paoletti

Another explanation given is that employees cannot see any point, as far as their job of work goes, in acquiring a "licenza media" school-leaving certificate in that owing to the increasingly difficult situation on the labour market, the chances of changing one's job, which would, to some extent, necessitate a school-leaving certificate (e.g. for a job in the public sector), are limited anyway.

- The rapid increase in the number of young people who want to obtain their "licenza media" qualification by way of these "150-hour" courses is explained by the fact the young people are thus offered an easier way of getting such a qualification than they would have through attending a normal school. It is pointed out that in the first year of these courses only a small proportion of the pupils failed to obtain their "licenza media" certificate at the end of the course: of the 13 200 pupils who were enrolled during the first year, 11 286 (85.6 %) took the examination and of these 11 198 (99.2 %) passed (CENSIS, 1975, Vol. I, 74). Another reason for the increase in the number of young people is, without a doubt, the fact that most of them are in any case unemployed and the number of participants from this group is thus not limited by the maximum quota per firm (2 - 3 %).

Educational leave: teachers and lecturers

As far as the teachers and lecturers on the "150-hour" courses are concerned, it is important to differentiate between the full-time staff, who are paid for out of state funds and look after the "licenza media" courses, and the part-time ones (members of the teaching staff at universities or trade union officials) who are mainly responsible for the monographic courses. The latter group used to take these courses in their spare time and only in the past few years has it been possible, in certain cases, for their teaching on the "150-hour" courses to be counted towards the number of hours they are expected to teach at their university or college. However, the vast majority of the courses available and, accordingly, of the teaching staff are those aimed at obtaining the "licenza media" qualification and these are the teachers employed by the state.

No precise figures are available on the total number of state-employed, "licenza media" course teachers. According to information given to us, however, we feel that it is fair to assume that in 1982 there were in the whole of Italy, around 3 000 teachers involved in the "150-hour" further education seminars. The distribution of such teachers is by no means uniform throughout Italy: for example, in Pisa, "150-hour" course teachers make up one tenth of the total number of teachers (14 from 140) whereas the average for the whole of the country, where a total of 730 000 teachers are employed, is more like one twentieth. In the early days of the "150-hour" programme it proved very difficult to get teachers for the "licenza media" courses because in some areas there were too many, in others far too few teachers. Those who were taken on in 1974 were, as a rule, very young. Many had only just completed their training, some had not even finished it. Of course, they lacked teaching experience. In 1974 only 13.8 % were over 30, and 32.3 % of them were under 26 (cf. CENSIS, 1975, Vol. I, 92). If we look at the findings of the 1974 CENSIS study and the 1980 FAGGIONI one, it is evident that the average age of the teachers rose between 1974 and 1978 and that the proportion of women teachers also increased considerably. A similar trend is evident from the findings of the 1981 Rome survey where four fifths of the teachers were over 30.

Of course, the increase in the average age of these teachers has also meant an increase in their teaching experience. Whereas in 1974 more than four fifths of the "150-hour" course teachers had been in the job for less than 3 years, in 1977/78 this group was down to one third. The findings of the 1981 Rome survey confirm this trend, too. This development is remarkable for two reasons. First, the "150-hour" course teachers are nearly all employed on the basis of term contracts, even if they are full-time staff. These term contracts are necessary, so the official reasoning, because the number of teachers required depends on the number of people enrolling for such courses - fewer participants, fewer teachers! Secondly, two thirds of the "150-hour" course teachers regard their job not as a permanent position, but as a means of furthering their professional career - this is confirmed in particular by the findings of the Rome survey. Only a relatively small proportion of the "150-hour" course teachers (just under a third) was involved in this work out of an interest in what is taught.

There has been, generally speaking, a change in the situation of the "150-hour" course teachers during the ten years the programme has been running. In the past few years the number of unemployed teachers in Italy has grown enormously. There are now waiting-lists of unemployed teachers wanting to be taken on. Those who have been waiting longest are considered first when the number of enrollments results in more teachers being needed. There are also great differences, particularly of a regional nature, in the motives of teachers who want to be taken on to teach such courses. In Southern Italy teachers are more concerned with getting a job whereas in the industrial conurbations of Northern Italy teachers are still more politically motivated. They also try to see to it that political factors play a more influential role in determining who is to take part in such courses. However, throughout Italy the teaching staff involved in the "150-hour" programme are extremely heterogeneous as regards political views, teaching experience and professional prospects.

Finally, another important aspect affecting the teaching staff for the "150-hour" courses and the original intention that these courses be seen as a criticism of and an initiative to reform the system of general school education, is the fact that the "midday school" within the "150-hour" programme has remained entirely separated from "morning school", i.e. the normal school lessons. Apparently, teachers at normal schools have a good many reservations regarding the teachers and the teaching in the "150-hour" courses; and there is a corresponding lack of interest on the part of the latter group in the system of general school education. Neither the teachers nor the "pupils" involved in the "150-hour" programme are in any way integrated into the normal school system. The consequence of this is that only a small proportion of these teachers are interested in moving on to some other form of teaching.

2.2.3. Influence of educational leave on the labour market

To sum up, the evidence available indicates that at present (1982) in Italy, around 11 million employees are entitled to paid educational leave on the basis of collective agreements. What this means in practice is that they are entitled to a maximum of "150 hours" paid leave spread over a period of 3 years. However, a good many collective agreements provide for fewer days' paid leave, some only for unpaid leave. In Italy release from work is generally linked to two conditions: first, everyone who takes educational leave has to "sacrifice" some of his or her free time for the course in question; secondly, there is a maximum contingent per firm, i.e. only 2.5-3.0 % of the work force (depending on the collective agreement in question) can take educational leave.

The empirical aspects of educational leave in Italy may be summarized from three points of view:

- First, the educational leave to which an employee is entitled during the 3-year period is normally taken piecemeal; in other words, one hour per week or month over a given number of weeks/months. Only occasionally do employees in Italy take their educational leave en bloc.

- Secondly, the maximum limit per firm of between 2 % and 3 % of the work force has never been fully utilized. During those periods with the highest number of participants in the "150-hour" courses, the average utilization rate within firms was around 1 %. But, after all, one can point to the fact that with 100 000 participants annually, around 50 % of those entitled to educational leave actually took it.

- Thirdly, there have been radical changes in the social structure of the participants in the "150-hour" courses during the period in which the programme has been in force. Fewer and fewer blue-collar workers are taking educational leave and the seminars are being attended more and more by unemployed young people, housewives and employees in middle and senior management. Correspondingly, there have been changes in the structure of the "150-hour" courses available.

2.2.3.1. Manpower withdrawal effects within firms

Generally speaking, it may be said that given the present educational leave provisions in Italy, the manpower withdrawal effect within firms is, in the opinion of all those involved, nil. The following bit of arithmetic provides ample evidence to support their appraisal of the present situation: the maximum paid leave provided for by any of

Italy's educational leave provisions is, at present, the "150-hour" model, spread over 3 years. Thus, we have a total of 50 hours' leave per year. 50 hours amount to 2.4 % of the total manhours worked per year - going on the basis of 50 working-weeks and a 40-hour week. If every employee were to take the leave he or she is entitled to, there would be a loss of 2.4 % of the total manhours worked. This is an extremely small percentage. What is more, one should not forget that the "150-hour" model, upon which the above calculation was based, represents the upper limit as far as release on educational leave is concerned - many of the collective agreements are not so generous.

Of course, the maximum quota of 2-3 % laid down in the collective agreements is of fundamental significance for such a calculation. Continuing with the figures worked out above, we discover that a maximum utilization rate of 3 % per firm means that the loss per firm of manhours worked per year only amounts to 0.072 %.

The fact that the actual utilization rate is only 1 % per firm means, of course, that the above percentage figure has to be reduced even further. Therefore, we can say that, with the present utilization rate and under the existing collective agreement provisions, often less than the "150 hours" guaranteed in the above model, the annual manpower withdrawal effect of educational leave provisions in Italy amounts, at present, to around 0.02 %. What this means in real terms is that a firm would have to employ 5 000 employees before one additional job were created under the present provisions, that is, looking at the matter from a purely mathematical angle.

However, in reality, the situation turns out to be different again from the above mathematical model. The reasons for this are as follows:

- The changes in the participation structure away from blue-collar workers and towards young people, people looking for work and housewives mean that increasing numbers of people are taking part in educational leave without any reduction of the manhours worked in a firm.

- The shift in the participation structure among those in some form of employment (fewer blue-collar workers, more and more white-collar ones) means that educational leave is having a smaller and smaller manpower withdrawal effect on those areas directly involved in the production process; employees released from jobs outside those areas can be more easily compensated for by shifting work around.

- According to statements made by unions and employers, the way in which educational leave is taken in Italy - a couple of hours on one afternoon a week, or similar arrangements - results in a very considerable reduction in the manpower withdrawal effect. The time lost in this way can be easily compensated for through some in-firm arrangement.

Thus, we may sum up by stating that no new jobs are going to be created in Italy through employees' taking educational leave. This is, without a doubt, also the chief reason why there are no conflicts whatsoever between employers and employees over requests for educational leave. Neither the unions nor the employers report of any difficulties with the educational leave provisions which have arisen since the corresponding collective agreements were signed. Those employers interviewed also said that they did not have any problems at all from the cost point-of-view. From the employers' standpoint, educational leave in Italy is just not worth mentioning as far as its influence on the manhours worked in a firm and the costs incurred as a result of it are concerned. This applies to the unions, too. They are mainly talking about educational leave from the point-of-view of its declining significance for the trade-union movement and the search for new course material.

2.2.3.2. Effects external to the firms

Looking at the effects of the "150-hour" provisions beyond the firms in question, we discover that, in the main, two groups of unemployed are affected: unemployed young people and teachers.

There is a large group of young people in Italy who have left school after completing the period of compulsory education and are looking for work, but who have not got any sort of school-leaving certificate to enable them to start vocational training. This group of young people is making up an increasingly large proportion of the participants in "150-hour" courses. This means that up to the point where they complete the course and obtain their "licenza media" qualification, they are not classified as job-seekers nor registered in the unemployment statistics. Probably there are, by now, around 20 - 30 000 young people per year who are putting off their search for a job until they have finished their "150-hour" courses.

The other group is that of the unemployed teachers - in Italy, there is an extremely high rate of unemployment amongst teachers. This particularly applies to those teachers who have completed their university education and are faced with an "in-between" period of waiting until they can take the state examination, a period in which they are supposed, indeed obliged to obtain teaching experience. For teachers such as these, the "150-hour" courses represent a possibility of aquiring a job for the time being and, with it, the necessary teaching experience. At present, around 3 000 teachers are employed throughout Italy in a full-time capacity to look after these courses. However, the number of teachers required is dependent upon the number enrolled in these courses, a figure which varies from year to year. In view of the steady drops in the numbers enrolling for such courses, we have to reckon with a fall in the number of teachers employed. Moreover, one has to take into account the fact that with over 700 000 teachers in Italy, the creation of 3 000 new jobs in this field (0.5 % of the total) is only really a drop in the ocean even though it does mean a great deal to the individual who actually gets the job.

2.2.3.3. Vocational Qualifications

Generally, it may be said that the Italian educational leave provisions in the "150-hour" programme are not directly related to the acquisition of vocational qualifications. In the negotiations between the unions and the employers about the educational leave provisions, the unions expressly refused to include any course contents to do with vocational qualifications.

The "licenza media" qualification, which can be obtained through the "150-hour" courses, is a school qualification of a general educational nature which is of no practical significance, vocationally speaking.It is only a necessary qualification for various clerical jobs in the administrative sector of the public service. The fact that this qualification is of so little use vocationally speaking is mentioned by many as the reason for the gradual drop in the participation rates and the falling off of interest in the courses on the part of blue-collar workers. A further problem arises through the fact that those who have acquired their "licenza media" qualification have got very little chance of any further vocational training because of the present inadequacies of the vocational training set-up in Italy.

In the discussions going on at present in trade-union circles which are concerned with alternative goals for educational leave, consideration is being given to the possibility of offering vocational qualifications via educational leave courses - it is, however, a very controversial topic. It is not yet possible to determine what form this could take, how far courses which pass on vocational skills could go and how the whole thing could, in fact, be implemented.

2.2.3.4. Prospects of extending educational leave

Summing up, we may safely say that, at present, the effects of educational leave provisions in Italy on the labour market are virtually nil.

In the opinion of the union and employer representatives and the researchers interviewed, the educational leave provisions would have to be altered in the following ways if they were to have any effects on the labour market and in terms of the vocational system.

- The duration of the period of release would have to be increased; mention was made of making it twice or three times as long whereby the possibility of unpaid leave was also brought into the discussion.

- The maximum quota per firm would have to be abolished or, at least, greatly increased because a 2 - 3 % quota can never be expected to have any real manpower withdrawal effect within a firm. Of course, a further requirement would be that this quota is fully utilized, which is not the case at present.

- The form in which educational leave is taken would have to be changed from the present system of a few hours per week to block courses, e.g. seminars lasting 2 - 4 weeks combined with preparatory and back-up events taking place outside the participants' working hours.

It would appear that there is, at present, in Italy no talk of extending the educational leave provisions. Both the employers and the unions point to more pressing problems on the labour-market front (wage and collective-bargaining policies, employment policy) to which priority is to be given. None of the interviewees saw any importance attached to educational leave in this context. The unions are, on top of that, tremendously concerned to discuss and solve the problems which have arisen regarding the contents of educational leave courses and the participation structure. However, this discussion does not (as yet) point to any extension of the existing provisions.

2.3.

United Kingdom

2.3. Educational leave and the labour market in the United Kingdom

Although the ILO Convention No. 140 has been ratified in the United Kingdom (UK), the right of each and every employee to educational leave has not yet been embodied in law. Therefore, as far as the UK is concerned, we shall have to confine our study to provisions which are, in a broader sense, of similar significance to educational leave. Indeed, they represent the only basis suitable for comparison with the appropriate provisions in other countries.

2.3.1. Educational leave provisions

Basically, we must start our study of the situation in the UK by looking at the three differing approaches to educational leave - educational leave as:

- an initiative by individual firms on a non-legal or some other mandatory basis;
- the consequence and/or integral part of some legislation;
- the outcome or consequence of collective agreements between employers and unions.

As far as the first approach is concerned, we are talking here about in-firm further education programmes organized by various nationalized industries and public services. Besides this, mention is made in several studies of corresponding in-firm training programmes in the private sector where the firms in question release their employees to enable them to take part. To a small extent, release is also obtainable for non-vocational further education programmes. As regards the approach whereby firms offer their employees the opportunity of release, we may summarize the situation by saying that it is primarily a case of in-firm measures dealing mostly with vocational further education.

Before dealing with the other approaches to educational leave in the UK, we first want to look at them in their overall context. Since about the mid-1970s, a legal framework for obtaining educational leave, under certain conditions, has existed in the UK, too. This can be seen as a legislative response to the protracted and fundamental conflicts between unions and employers. However, since there is in the UK a long tradition of extraordinary legislative restraint in the field of labour relations and the two sides of industry have always attached great importance to the autonomous nature of their relations and any provisions affecting them, this legal framework is only a rough outline to be supplemented, as was the case previously, by agreements worked out by management and labour.In this respect, any differentiation between "statutory or collective agreement" provisions in the UK is only meant as an elucidation in that it is impossible to draw a clear line between these two approaches as regards origins or current practice.

Persons entitled to leave

At a statutory level, the right to release for the purposes of further education can be traced back to the 1964 Industrial Training Act and then to the 1973 Employment and Training Act in which this right was embodied again. These Acts were not primarily thought of as expressions of a particular educational policy affecting individual employees but rather as employment policy decisions designed to bring about or safeguard, with the help of financial provisions, a greater degree of adaptability to the demands of new technologies. On the basis of these statutory financing arrangements for vocational further education measures, a corresponding bill was passed in 1975 (the Employment Protection Act) which was then amended in the form of the 1978 Employment Protection (consolidation) Act.

These two Acts laid down the principles, which are still valid today, governing release for educational leave. The group of persons entitled to such leave was defined as follows:

- Persons holding an official union post within a firm are entitled to release in order to carry out their union work and to take part in appropriate further training in the field of labour relations.

- Trade-union members and their representatives are entitled to release (not necessarily to paid leave) in order to take part in union activities.

- Safety officers in firms are entitled to paid release in order to perform their job and to take part in further education measures.1)

- Employees are entitled to be released (not necessarily to paid leave) in order to carry out any public offices entrusted to them, e.g. Council members.

- Employees who have been with a firm for more than 2 years and are threatened with redundancy as a result of firm-related factors are entitled to paid leave in order to look for a new job or seek some further training opportunities.

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1) It must be added that through the 1975 Health and Safety at Work Act a separate legal foundation was laid down governing the release on further education measures of persons who serve as safety officers in a firm.

Besides naming the above groups of persons, the statutory provisions do not supply any other precise definitions of which persons are entitled to educational leave. They merely rule out various groups who do not fulfil certain requirements. Those ruled out include, et al., any persons employed for less than 16 hours a week who have been employed by the same firm over a period of at least 5 years for at least 8 hours a week; any members of the police force or the armed forces; and the spouses of self-employed persons. Whereas all the above-mentioned groups of persons entitled to leave do not need to have worked at a firm for any particular period of time, the last-named group must have been employed in a firm at least two years.

As far as the leave provisions on the basis of collective agreements are concerned, the criterion applied to determine who is entitled to leave is, in the main, as follows: employees who hold an official union post within a firm may be released in order to carry out their union activities in the form of participation in further education events, usually run by the unions. Generally, it must be emphasized that in the UK the leave possibilities open to employees on the basis of collective agreements vary tremendously as to their substance because of the extremely decentralized nature of the negotiations (mostly at a firm level) and, what is more, are generally not mutually binding. This is due to the fact that in the UK collective agreements are still concluded between unions and firms on a binding-in-honour basis. This means that the parties to a collective agreement declare in principle their intention of viewing the details of the agreement as binding but, on the other hand, also reserve for themselves the basic right of reconsidering the situation if circumstances should change. In this respect, the agreements concluded are without prejudice with both parties to the agreements instead regarding the framework thus laid down as a basis which was mutually agreed upon at that particular point of time. The relationship between employees and their unions on the one hand and employers and their organizations on the other is thus, with respect to collective agreements, more an expression of their relative strength than a legal relationship (cf. here DEGEN, 1976).

As far as the substance of the respective agreements on the question of educational leave is concerned, this means that the negotiating strength of the unions in the firms concerned has been the crucial factor in the implementation of the legal framework or in the question of whether any other provisions, going beyond those laid down by law, have been forced through.

Contents of the measures

With the characterization of the statutory provisions as "framework provisions" serving as a backdrop, we can point out that the various Acts do not contain any precise definition of the contents of further education measures. Any narrowing down of such contents is more an indirect result of the fact that there are restrictions on those entitled to leave, i.e. just the above groups of persons. In this respect, it must be pointed out, especially in a comparative study such as this, that in the UK the approach is to claim leave for certain, limited groups of employees rather than to pursue the goal of educational leave for each and every employee.

Duration and structure of release

In line with the above characterization of the situation in the UK, neither the statutory provisions nor the collective agreements contain any clear-cut definitions of the period of release. Instead, the statutory provisions and, above all, the implementation provisions mention various factors which are to form a skeleton framework to be filled out by the provisions agreed on in negotiations between the employers and unions. Phrases such as "suitable when all the circumstances are taken into account" require further interpretation, and indeed, express mention is made of the help which procedural suggestions from the Advisory, Conciliation and Arbitration Service (ACAS) can give in transferring such phrases into the everyday practice of collective agreements.

As far as the opportunities for release on the basis of collective agreement are concerned, this means that the period of release which is negotiated or forced through in a particular firm then becomes a yardstick for the way in which leave is handled in practice. Therefore, it is not possible to make any generalized statements about the duration of educational leave.

Financial aspects

The statutory provisions on the continuance of wage payments to employees on leave have to be seen in the context of the details of all the criteria listed above. As these skeleton provisions do, in principle, form the basis for the actual negotiations, the appropriate provisions on the continuance of wages payments are also bound to be associated in some way with their interpretation in the practice. For example, the above-mentioned 1978 Employment Protection Act provides for those holding official union posts in a firm to be paid their average wage by the firm during the time spent on further education courses.

However, this point again clearly illustrates the connection between the statutory skeleton provisions on the one hand, and the reality of negotiations and collective agreements in the firms on the other: the principle of paid leave for participation in further education measures, which is embodied in law, has to be fought for in each industrial case where negotiations take place between the unions and the firm in question - in other words, it is not the basic, vested right of each employee.

The question of paid leave is settled in a very varied manner in the many collective agreements and, in the end, its realization or rather the extent to which it is realized is dependent upon the negotiating strength of the union(s) concerned. For example, there are cases where the firm in question also agrees to bear the costs or a part of the costs of travel, food and board for the educational leave measures in question.

In the UK the government does not provide any other financial support for vocational further education measures, apart from that which is contained in the provisions of the above-mentioned Act.

2.3.2. Educational leave - statistical data and other empirical aspects

The fact that there are such considerable qualitative and quantitative differences in the field of educational leave provisions in the UK means that no statistical material of a comprehensive nature is available on empirical aspects of educational leave. However, there are some studies which can provide us with summarized information, albeit only a selective, regionally-based nature.

The most extensive statistical material available is to be found in a study dealing with educational leave in England and Wales in 1976 and 1977 (cf. KILLEEN/BIRD, 1980).

The authors of this study estimate that 3-4 million adult employees over the age of 19 took "some form of educational leave" in 1976 and 1977 in order to take part in further education measures. This represents a total of 25 - 30 million days, or about 8 days per participant. About two thirds of this group of persons, however, attended measures organized and carried out by their own firm. The rest went to courses run by further education establishments which were external to the firm in question. The vast majority of these events was of extremely short duration with an average of up to 6 days per participant for in-firm measures; however, although there were a good many equally brief measures among the non-firm events, there was also a considerable number, albeit still the minority, of longer courses.

Despite the existence of such inadequacies in the statistical material available, it is safe to say that there is, in the UK, an extraordinarily high proportion of in-firm further education. This, if we extend our definition of educational leave to include such in-firm measures, we can point to a large number of participants in the UK.

By employing a more detailed method of analysis, the authors of this study arrive at a further estimate of the number of participants in educational leave measures taking place in non-firm further education establishments during 1976 and 1977: their figure is between 750 000 and 1 350 000. These persons had taken part in between 45 000 and 65 000 educational leave measures.

Taking an estimated total of 12.7 million employees as a basis, the corresponding investigation of in-firm further education arrived at a total of 1.9 million participants (15 %) for 1976-77. On the basis of other findings which indicate that apparently the larger firms mainly offer such in-firm educational leave opportunities, the authors of this study estimate that between 2 m and 2.8 m. places were available in the field of in-firm educational leave whereas, in contrast, the number of places made by non-firm further education establishments was limited to around one million.

Although employees in the UK do not have a general right to educational leave, certain trends are evident from the studies of measures which are virtually equivalent to what we have termed "educational leave". However, before going on to this, it is important, first of all, to point to the evidence of the past few years in the UK. On the basis of this, it is fair to say that the growth in the numbers of participants which has been recorded up to now is in real danger of being brought to an end by the drastic cuts in public spending on such events. Already there is ample evidence of a fall in the number enrolling for such further education courses. Cuts in government subsidies and increases in the share of the costs which those taking part have to bear are already having their effect. In the opinion of unions and employers, this development means that one of the most important pre-requisites for any further discussions on the prospects for educational leave is more or less lacking.

As far as those educational leave measures which are organized and carried out by non-firm further education establishments are concerned, some definite trends are evident from the structural data on those taking part:

Those under 30 make up a considerably larger proportion of all participants than older ones do; all in all, the probability of those under 30 taking part in such measures is estimated to be 9 times higher than those over 50.

As regards the ratio of men to women at such events, it can be said that, compared to the overall ratio of male to female employees in England and Wales (40 % are women), women are very poorly represented amongst participants at educational leave courses with only one in six being women. These mean figures need to be broken down somewhat further by pointing out that the vast majority of such events were, in fact, a purely male domain and that the comparatively small number of women participants was concentrated on a limited range of courses which were aimed at various occupational groups where women predominate, e.g. courses for secretaries, health workers and welfare officers. As far as the occupational structure was concerned, the material available showed that employees enjoying some sort of senior status at work, managerial staff and white-collar workers in technical or scientific occupations were represented to an above-average degree at further education measures whereas employees from unskilled or semi-skilled occupational groups were extremely poorly represented when one considers just how large their share is of the gainfully-employed population.

The contents and goals of further education measures in the UK are closely tied up with the characteristics portrayed above. As has already become evident from all the statistical material available for the UK, a very large majority of such measures are concerned with vocational further training. There are two main categories of employees which can be made out: young employees and managerial staff: there is, besides this obviously career-oriented further training, a very comprehensive set-up of union-based further education. However, it would be wrong to suggest that in the UK any other area exists besides the two central ones mentioned above: in-firm advanced and further training on the one hand and union-based further education on the other. Thus, it is quite clear from the contents and goals of the educational leave measures that participants are being spoken to either in their capacity as employees of a particular firm or as members of officials of a particular union.

The educational leave measures aimed at union members or union officials in a firm deserve separate treatment in that this group of employees enjoying the right to educational leave (laid down in concrete terms for each individual case) on the basis of the 1975 and 1978 statutory provisions and of collective agreements has been, strictly speaking, "the real target-group" in the practical operation of educational leave up to now.

The above-mentioned study of educational leave in England and Wales (cf. KILLEEN/BIRD, 1980) provides us with data for 1976/77 - a total of around 29 000 people took part in about 1 600 educational leave courses. In addition to these courses, which were run either by the unions' own further education establishments or by others closely connected with them, we have to list a non-quantifiable number of measures organized by firms themselves, at an in-firm level, with the co-operation of and for the union officials concerned. These are mainly in-firm further education programmes aimed at improving employer-employee relations within the firm's safety and health officers. Such courses do not usually last for more than a day or two.

Besides such in-firm measures run by individual firms for representatives of employees' organizations within the firm, the TUC quoted a total of 1 540 educational leave measures for 1976 and 1977 with 21 288 participants. These events were organized and run as day-release courses. The TUC also ran a further 278 residential courses with a total of 7 259 participants. Other educational leave courses which were run for this group of people were organized by the further education departments of universities. In 1976 and 1977 a further 2 159 people took part in specifically TUC courses and 2 815 in events tackling topics particularly to do with this field.

The corresponding figures for 1978/79 are given by the TUC as follows: a total of 3 035 educational leave courses were visited by over 39 000 union members or officials. A more detailed look at those taking part shows that 20 000 union officials took part in a total of 1 600 courses and 19 000 safety officers in 1 400 courses. The TUC receives an annual grant from the Ministries of Education and Labour for organizing and running these courses. For the 1980-81 period this grant amounted to more than £ 1.6 million.

2.3.3. Influence of educational leave on the labour market

It is characteristic of the situation of educational leave in the UK that there is no general legal right to educational leave enjoyed by all employees. The existing statutory skeleton provisions only apply to union members of the union officials in a firm. One of the main operational characteristics of educational leave in the UK is also the result of this situation: the fact that the courses are exclusively geared to passing on knowledge and skills which the participants need in order to perform the functions assigned to them in their vocational situation. The agreements negotiated between the two sides of industry continue to play the role of filling out the details of the statutory skeleton provisions. Thus, there is a close relationship between the legal basis for the opportunity of obtaining leave and the actual "end-product" given a concrete form by the results of collective bargaining. If we compare the significance of the statutory skeleton provisions with that of the collective agreements resulting from the former, it is quite obvious that as far as the UK is concerned, the latter is still predominantly important. The most extensive educational leave provisions have been forced through in those firms where unions are strong and well-organized and

their representatives have been able to make their weight felt.
What this in fact means for the UK as a whole is that we may only assume that there are limited effects of educational leave at a national level.

2.3.3.1. Manpower withdrawal effects within firms

Corresponding to the existing educational leave provisions and their realization in the UK, no direct manpower withdrawal effect is determinable at a firm level. Moreover, it is quite obvious that the further education courses, aimed mainly at in-firm union officials, only cover a very small proportion of a firm's employees. Given the hitherto prevailing emphasis within the statutory framework and the collective agreement provisions, the chances of any manpower withdrawal effect within a firm are minimal anyway.

2.3.3.2. Effects external to the firms

One should first of all point to the fact that in recent years there has been a considerable structural extension in the unions' further education programme spurred on by the increase in the opportunities of taking educational leave. Compared to the situation in other European countries, there had been very little systematically-organized further education of in-firm union officials and union members in the UK; moreover, there had been very little co-ordinated methodical, didactic planning either at an individual union level or at TUC level; correspondingly, the various establishments had run relatively few educational leave courses. However, in recent years, the TUC has worked out various programmes aimed at the realization of further education opportunities for in-firm union officials and designed to serve as a recommendation for the staff of establishments running such courses. There are four different types of further education courses (see below) designed along the lines of a graduated plan:

- Induction training: initial introductory courses for newly-elected union representatives; should last for at least 15 hours and be held within 3 months of the election to the post in question;

- Basic introductory courses: designed to supply basic but detailed information on the function of a union official within a firm; should last at least 10 - 12 days in the form either of block-release or day-release courses; should be held within 12 months of the official's election to such a post;

- Advanced courses: designed to provide "advanced" participants with specialized information on new statutory regulations or provisions, in-firm information systems and various work-study procedures; also intended to last for 10 - 12 days and to be oriented towards the participants' requirements in their respective fields of employment.

- Lengthier advanced courses: residential courses, up to 6 weeks in length, aimed at enabling experienced participants to get to grips with the various problems they face as union representatives.

This example serves to show that although educational leave has not had any direct influence external to the firms via the labour market, there has in fact been a significant institutional growth in the availability of educational leave courses which has, of course, had some staffing effect as well. Besides the union set-ups themselves, other further education establishments have benefited a lot from various forms of co-operation in the sphere of further education. In this context, the universities' further education departments may be mentioned as one example for institutions which have enjoyed a considerable boom.

2.3.3.3 Vocational Qualifications

Given the fact that in the UK at present only in-firm union officials and union members may take educational leave on the basis of the statutory provisions and those laid down in collective agreements, there are, correspondingly, no direct consequences for vocational qualifications.

On the other hand, the term "educational leave" is also seen in the UK as including the whole area of government further education and vocational retraining programmes as well as those initiated and organized by the firms themselves. However, there is increasing evidence that the extensive measures run by the Manpower Services Commission (MSC), in particular, are concentrating more and more on programmes for young people and the unemployed. Thus, in view of its target-group, this form of further training, which is geared, to a large extent, to the conveyance of vocational skills,can hardly be taken into consideration in any comparative study of educational leave in the strict sense of paid leave for the employees of a firm.

On the other hand, however, it is worth noting that the large number of in-firm further education courses run by the firms themselves are classified in some sectors of industry as programmes of a similar nature to educational leave. Nevertheless, these measures, which are almost exclusively geared to straight vocational further training, are not run on the basis of any employees' right to educational leave as a result of statutory provisions or any other kind of agreement.

Thus, it is very difficult to compare this situation with the educational leave provisions in the other Community countries. What is more, there is also the fact that as far as this field of in-firm, vocationally-oriented further and advanced training is concerned, it is impossible to say whether or to what extent any tangible manpower withdrawal effect is discernible.

Discussions with representatives of the unions and the employers' associations indicated that there is definite agreement on the necessity of including the aspect of vocational qualifications, which can play an important role in helping to overcome labour-market problems, in any extension of educational leave.

The TUC has indeed demanded that employers be compelled by statutory means to release employees, especially in cases where such leave is necessary to improve the vocational qualifications of those concerned and is thus important for the employment situation in general. The TUC feels that it is vital to increase the existing vocational further training measures and, by means of statutory provisions, to make them obligatory for employers. With a view to regulating the question of costs, the TUC proposes that the government should guarantee the availability of sufficient courses through adequate subsidies whereas employers should agree to continue paying their employees' wages during such further education courses.

According to the Confederation of British Industry (CBI), the only possible point of departure for any discussion on further education programmes is the question of what is most important for the firm concerned in view of the situation it finds itself in. The premise of "employer demands" is given priority as a central category in this whole question. The CBI feels this term "employer demands" should be determined by reference to the requirements of the process of technological change and defined more precisely by reference to the specific needs of the firm in question.

2.3.3.4 Prospects of extending educational leave

The following assessment of the prospects of extending educational leave in the UK ties in with the above-mentioned appraisals by unions and employers.

Although the possibility of union members' and in-firm union officials' obtaining leave has only existed on a statutory basis for a few years now, we are, in fact, confronted with a framework which has already been through a lengthy process of development thanks to the collective agreements and as such is generally accepted by the two sides of industry. Hopes of an extension of educational leave in the UK beyond this relatively small proportion of employers would appear to lie more with the situation in the individual companies, where there are possibilities of negotiating and then putting into practice new educational leave provisions, and less with the existing statutory skeleton provisions. Thus, as far as the possibilities of educational leave in firms are concerned, we must point to what has been a predominant principle in the history of British labour relations whereby the relative strengths of the two sides of industry have had much more influence on the industrial and social climate than the legislature has had. In addition, the employers have recently been taking part in various initiatives to do with further training and retraining programmes which may not, however, be counted as educational leave measures in the stricter sense of the word. It is much more in keeping with the attitudes of the British employers to support the educational system in such a way as best of take into account the demands of private industry. For this reason, the employers are speaking out for a catalogue of programmes and projects in the form of government measures directed at the labour market and implemented under the auspices of the Manpower Services Commission.

In the employers' opinion, too, the target-group for such measures should not primarily be any particular occupational group but rather the group of school-leavers so as to tackle the serious problems of unemployment. School-leavers should be meaningfully integrated into the world of work by means of preparatory vocational training or other kinds of vocational further training. Besides this group, efforts are mainly being directed towards the unemployed to provide them with opportunities for vocational further or advanced training or retraining, as the case may be.

In all the talks we had with and the statements made by the CBI, it was pointed out again and again that the only criterion which could be applied in deciding whether or not employees are to be released for further education courses should be the needs of the firm in question. As far as any other further education initiative on the part of an employee was concerned, the CBI stressed that no educational leave provisions could be introduced where the employers had to bear the cost. The emphasis thus given to the demands or needs of the firm involved is further underlined by the priority given to the category of "relevance", i.e. all further education measures should start out from the basis of their relevance for the firm in question. In contrast, the employers regard an alternative justification of educational leave, whereby consideration is given to educational leave on account of its manpower withdrawal effect on the labour market or from the point of view of employment or social policies as being purely theoretical and irrelevant for everyday business practice.

The CBI has emphasized its basic willingness to play a constructive part in approaches to further education through various initiatives in which it has called for an economically, socially and technologically more efficient use of the existing further education resources. Concrete proposals have been put forward as to how more effectiveness and flexibility, from a methodical as well as an organizational and a cost-saving point-of-view, could be brought into the practice of further education. Particular emphasis was directed towards giving greater consideration and making more use of new methods of learning.

Finally, it should be pointed out that the CBI rejects the idea of statutory provisions to regulate the question of release for educational leave (as regards the present as well as the future) in favour of a tripartite approach whereby employers, unions and government bodies work together to find mutually-acceptable solutions. In the CBI's opinion, this kind of approach would be more in keeping with the actual preconditions and the particular circumstances existing in the UK. In this context, attention was again drawn to the above-mentioned conditions regarding educational and labour-market policies laid down by the CBI.

In conclusion, it should be pointed out as regards the unions' position that, at present, their activities are mainly concentrated on working towards extending the existing provisions for union members and in-firm union officials and building up a network of suitable further education opportunities. The creation of the necessary staffing and educational preconditions and the actual realization of the existing chances of taking educational leave in the firms themselves are at present presenting the unions concerned and other further education establishments with extremely great problems. The TUC also emphasizes that employees attending complementary vocational or union-run educational courses should be able to obtain grants from the local authorities. In other words, those taking educational leave should be endowed with more rights than they have at present. It is true that in some cases educational leave is paid for by employers. But in those cases where this is not applicable, government grants should enable those taking part in educational leave courses to enjoy the same privileges of state support enjoyed by other students. The TUC also stresses that in the present economic and political climate the fact that there is increasing opposition to granting release for educational leave on the part of the employers - despite the existing statutory framework and collective agreements - cannot be ignored.

2.4.
France

2.4. Educational leave and the labour market in France

When dealing with the situation in which educational leave in France finds itself, one has to begin by pointing to the fact that this Community member has had, comparatively speaking, the longest experience of educational leave.

In order to understand the opportunities available on the basis of statutory provisions or collective agreements, one has to know something about the conditions under which educational leave was introduced and about the developments in French domestic politics since 1968. The social and political confrontations of May - June 1968 - demonstrations, general strikes and other forms of resistance practised by organized labour and the students - also brought about changes in the social and educational situation in France and sparked off a whole series of new developments.

2.4.1 Educational leave provisions

Forced with such an explosive domestic political situation, leading representatives of the government, the employers and the unions got together as early as the end of May 1968 and agreed, among other things, that questions of initial and further vocational training should be discussed in negotiations between employers and unions.

The first skeleton collective agreement in which the link between safeguarding jobs and further education was laid down was the "National Inter-Professional Agreement on Safeguarding Employment" of February 10, 1969. What this Agreement actually meant was that an employer was obliged, if redeployment became necessary, to make sure that those affected were no worse off afterwards. This was to be done with the help of appropriate vocational adjustment or further education measures which were to be carried out in such a way as to enable, if possible, the employees concerned to make use of the existing statutory opportunities.

The details of this Agreement indicate quite clearly the link between the collective agreement provisions and the opportunities of obtaining release embodied in law. This Agreement in February 1969 turned out to be the basis for further negotiations in the field of further education, too. After lengthy negotiations between employers and unions, a milestone was set on July 9, 1970 when the "National Inter-Professional Collective Agreement" was signed regulating all the main questions of initial and further training. Under the terms of this Agreement, every employee has a basic right to obtain release from work in order to take part in educational events without his or her job being affected in any way.

Right at the heart of these agreements, the regulations for the continuance of wage payments to employees on educational leave, a varied range of provisions was drawn up to determine the kind of course contents which were to be considered permissible for educational leave. The joint commission which was specially set up to deal with claims for educational leave was given the task of laying down criteria for granting leave and the basis for settling the question of paid leave.

The fact that the right to educational leave was anchored in these collective agreements has to be seen as one of their most significant characteristics. What this actually means is that an employee is entitled to his or her full wage or salary for the first 160 hours of an educational leave course. However, the pre-requisite for this is that the course in question has been approved by the relevant joint commission. The fact that this decision-making gremium was set up with equal representation by unions and employers' organisations virtually meant that the limitation of permissible courses to those which were directly job- or firm-oriented was a foregone conclusion.

Other provisions laid down that only 2 % of the employees of a particular firm could take educational leave at any one time;

however, in the case of those events which a firm's employees were attending at the wish of the management, only half of the total number attending should be taken as the basis for this 2 % calculation.

This "National Inter-Professional Agreement" of July 9, 1970 is right at the centre of collective agreement provisions on educational leave in France. Apart from this, there was just the additional agreement for senior staff which was signed by employers and unions on April 30, 1971. This was a skeleton collective agreement for senior staff in which this occupational group was also granted the right to educational leave. In this case, however, their entitlement to leave was extended to cover any activity undertaken as an instructor or teacher. This innovation, which meant that educational leave could be taken with a view to some pedagogical activity, did not, however, present employers with any obligation to continue salary payments - it should merely be seen as a right to educational leave enjoyed by this group of employees. Furthermore, the employees agreed that for this group the maximum percentage of employees who could be absent from work at any one time be increased from 2 % to 3 %. Finally, this group of employees was also entitled to attend courses with more varied contents in that the pre-condition for obtaining leave, that the further education courses attended be of a purely vocational character, was dropped.

As far as the collective agreement provisions on educational leave are concerned,we may sum up by saying that with these skeleton collective agreements, signed in 1970 and 1971 with the social and political conflicts in France still very fresh in people's minds, the foundation was laid for the statutory provisions which were subsequently passed.

The standardization of educational leave in France on a statutory basis has to be seen in the context of the conflicts between unions and employers since 1968. In this respect, the "Law governing the organization of vocational further education within the scope of a life-long learning process", which was passed on July 16, 1971, represents a codification of the provisions of the skeleton collective agreement. From a domestic political standpoint, this law has to be classified as one of the reforms brought in by the then government. At that time,it formed the only central statutory basis for the government's policy on further education. Earlier statutory provisions dealing with the question of educational leave (dating from 1959, 1966 and 1968) were repealed when the new law came into force on January 1, 1973. In 1978 this law was then amended.

Persons entitled to leave

On the basis of the French law governing educational leave, all employees are entitled to claim such leave. No occupational groups are excluded and no age-limits apply. According to the provisions laid down in the Amendment of July 17, 1978, the following conditions have to be fulfilled by employees' applying for educational leave: employees must have been working in their present field of employment for at least 2 years, 6 months of which with their present employer. The terms under which educational leave is granted are largely identical with the corresponding provisions of the collective agreement signed in July 1970; but in certain points this Amendment goes further, e.g. the stipulation barring employees who are less than 5 years away from retirement age from educational leave was removed. A further example of provisions which go beyond those of the National Collective Agreement may be found in the regulations granting young blue- and white collar workers with no vocational qualifications the statutory right to educational leave, even if they are under 20 years of age and have been working for the firm in question for less than 2 years.

However, the group of persons entitled to educational leave is affected by the quota which the law lays down for the firm in question. In firms with 200 or more employees not more than 2.2 % of the total work-force may take leave at the same time. In firms with less than 200 employees the total number of hours claimed for educational leave may not exceed 2 % of the total manhours worked in the firm.

Duration and structure of release

The law does not lay down any definite, generally-applicable period of release for educational leave. In other words, the period of release is dependent upon the contents and organizational form of the educational leave seminar concerned. Thus, the actual period of release is determined by the way in which the financial aspect has been regulated. In this respect, the law does not lay down any particular number of working-days per employee and per year. In practice, events lasting only a short time and others going on for several months may be classified as being eligible for educational leave.

Contents of educational leave measures

The regulations, at a formal statutory level, affecting the question of what course contents may be offered within the scope of educational leave, were actually extended in 1978 through the Amendment to the 1971 Law. An employee may choose between educational measures of a vocational, general or political character, depending on where his or her interests lie.

However, when discussing these extremely generous regulations, which mean that virtually any kind of subject-matter is permissible, it is very important to take into account the financial conditions applying to educational leave. Although, formally speaking, the provisions governing the contents of such courses are relatively generous, the financial side is, in accordance with the original legislative intent, subject to certain priorities. Thus, the Preamble, which is still in force today, states that the aim of permanent vocational training, of which vocational further training is defined as being a part, is "to enable gainfully-employed persons to adapt to technological changes and those affecting their working-conditions; to further their social upward mobility through access to the various levels of education and vocational qualifications and to further their participation in cultural, economic and social developments" (Article from the "Law governing the organization of vocational further education", July 16, 1971). The priority thus given to vocational further training is clearly expressed in the financial arrangements.

Financial aspects

The provisions governing the financing of educational leave have to be presented and assessed from two points-of-view: on the one hand, the specifically French form of "pool financing" by the employers; and on the other hand, the statutory provisions on the continuance of wage payments to those taking educational leave.

Employers' further-education levy:
The 1971 Law laid down that all employers with more than 10 employees during the reference year had to spend, for the purposes of further education, a sum amounting initially to 0.8 % and then progressively increasing up to 1976 to 2 % of their total wage and salary bill, or else pay this same amount in the form of a levy to the government.

The 1978 Amendment then laid down that, from 1978 onwards, this further-education levy only had to amount to 1.1 % of a firm's wage and salary costs.
However, the statutory possibilities open to firms to enable them to set off further education measures, which they have organized or initiated themselves, against this compulsory 1.1 % levy are of central importance. The following expenditures are deemed by law to be deductible from the further-education levy:

- expenses incurred by firms for the in-firm or inter-firm further education of their employees - it is important to note that any expenses incurred in the joint financing of items of equipment such as instruments etc. may be fully deducted, so long as these items are solely intended for the purpose of further education;

- payments to specific further education funds: for example, several firms may appoint a recognized further education institute to run appropriate events for their employees; such organizational schemes enable, so to speak, directly job- or firm-oriented further education to be carried out by what are largely commercial further education institutes;

- payments to further education establishments whose activities have been officially recognized as worthy of promotion - however, these payments are limited to 10 % of the firm's further education levy.

Although these financial conditions (which are also supplemented by government grants from further education capacities) mean that firms are committed by law to expenditure on further education, they can in fact apply their own criteria as to how the money is to be spent, taking into account their own needs. In this respect, a comparison with other countries of the Community shows quite clearly that a financial obligation of this nature cannot be seen as a specific advancement of educational leave in the same way as the much more extensive rights enjoyed by employees can. The firms themselves have the final say in deciding how their money is to be spent and they thus have a decisive influence on the resultant range of educational leave courses available to their employees. The arrangements for continuing wage payments, detailed below, only serve basically to multiply this effect.

Arrangements for continuing wage payments:
In the 1978 Amendment, the following stipulations were laid down governing the continuance of wage payments in the case of the various kinds of educational leave courses:

- courses lasting under 3 months: an employer continues to pay an employee's wages for the first 4 weeks or 160 hours of educational leave; after that the government takes over;

- courses lasting 3 - 12 months: an employer pays wages for the first 13 weeks or 500 hours (16 weeks in the case of managerial staff); then the government steps in;

- courses lasting over 12 months: the same provisions apply as with the 3 - 12 month courses; however, monthly payments are calculated on the basis of the guaranteed minimum wage and are only paid if the employee concerned has been working at the firm for at least 3 years.

As far as the practical implementation of the above is concerned, we must stress the importance of the appropriate statutory provisions concerning jurisdiction and acceptance procedures at an official level or by way of the corresponding jointly-administered funds.

The interdependence of the financial side of educational leave and the course contents also becomes obvious when we look at the categories which are laid down by law for permissible educational leave measures. The following kinds of events are considered to be basically worthy of promotion:

- retraining courses and preventive measures for employees under 18;
- adaptation measures: these are firm- and job-oriented events, e.g. integration courses for young people starting on their first job or retraining measures for employees who are being transferred to a different job within the firm;
- measures aimed at furthering the promotion prospects of employees and the self-employed;
- measures aimed at maintaining or extending the skills and/or level of education of employees and self-employed persons.

It is quite obvious from the statutory provisions on educational leave detailed above that although every employee in France is entitled by law to educational leave, the financial arrangements mean that the codified rights do have a dominating influence on the field of vocational further education which is directly firm- or job-related. Furthermore, the arrangements for continuing wage payments and the accompanying institutional framework for checking and approving the respective further education course also clearly indicate an emphasis of this nature.

2.4.2 Educational leave - statistical data and other empirical aspects

When looking at the empirical side of educational leave in France, one has to take into account the fact that the definition of "educational leave" to be found in French statutory provisions is a very extensive one. Any statistical material of a global nature is, unfortunately, only of limited use because of the provisions governing the financing of educational leave, and in particular in view of the various ways firms have of fulfilling their obligation to pay a further education levy. The wide range of statutory requirements means that both the following categories of events are included in the French definition of "educational leave":in-firm further or advanced training courses and initial vocational training courses. Thus, it is virtually impossible to discover any basis for a quantitative or qualitative comparison with the experience of other Member States because their definition of "educational leave" does not include the above-mentioned categories.

Thus, we shall be restricting ourselves in this section to supplying basic data and some appraisals of the way in which things are developing, together with particularly important empirical data. In view of the particular nature of the legal framework in France, it will be important to differentiate between the various kinds of events with an eye to the relevant procedures for approving and financing educational leave.

By analyzing the measures approved by official bodies or by the joint employment commissions, we discovered the following main points: over 30 % of further education measures up for official approval were concerned with vocational qualifications and two thirds of them led up to a final examination and an appropriate certificate. Nearly 80 % of these courses were directed to one special kind of professional training; around 15 % were arranged to satisfy training needs particular to the firm in question; and only 5 % of the courses were concerned with improving the participants' general level of education.

A closer look at the participation structure at such events revealed that more than two thirds of those taking part either came with a relatively high level of previous experience or knowledge or were well-qualified vocationally or educationally speaking. Those taking part are required to show that they have obtained their certificate of apprenticeship or skilled worker's certificate or have passed their "A-level" examinations and obtained a master craftsman's or technician's certificate. This clearly indicates that the majority of participants does not come from occupational groups which may be classified as educationally-underprivileged as far as the normal school or vocational education system goes.

Events which have been officially approved and financed out of public funds tend to be of a more lengthy nature. For example, events lasting between 1 000 and 1 200 hours make up one third of the total number. Around 20 % are even longer - over 1 200 hours. All other events, around half of the total, last for less than 1 000 hours.

Further education courses which were approved by the joint employment commissions are in marked contrast to those described above. Although in this case, too, around 85 % of the courses are concerned with improving vocational skills, only 10 % lead up to some sort of examination. Although a correspondingly large proportion is directed towards specific professional training (around 78 %), it is important to note that around one quarter, i.e. a significantly higher proportion of the courses, is directed towards the particular training needs of the firm in question. The proportion of general educational courses is again very small (around 8 %).

These courses reveal a similar participation structure to that described above - more than three quarters of those taking part were relatively highly-qualified, either vocationally or educationally speaking. The same situation prevails here: a relatively high level of previous experience and/or knowledge is evident among the participants. Thus, it is totally wrong to describe the main target-group participating in educational leave as in any way educationally-underprivileged. Nearly three quarters of the seminars approved by the joint employment commissions only lasted for between 40 and 160 hours; in other words, they are considerably shorter than most of those approved and paid for by the state.

As far as the course contents are concerned, we may sum up by saying that those events which are held in accordance with the French law on further education/educational leave should be classified as being basically vocationally-oriented with a clear emphasis on vocationally well-qualified participants. The difference in the aims of the two categories of courses becomes obvious if we look at the question of the qualifications obtainable on conclusion of a course: in the case of the longer state-approved courses, the aim is to improve the level of vocational training and obtain an appropriate certificate; with the others the aim is to extend vocational or firm-related skills.

However, it should be pointed out in answering the question about the specifically French experience of educational leave for employees with a legal right to release that the course structures and the direct needs of or initiatives by the firm in question have a dominating effect on the practice of educational leave in France. Furthermore, there is also the fact that firms can fulfil their financial obligations regarding further education through organizing their own courses or co-operating closely with some other institution which actually runs the course. The fact that firms mostly make use of this opportunity has a most definite prejudicial effect on the right of each individual employee to educational leave. Although, theoretically speaking, it is possible to claim educational leave for other kinds of events or for courses run by other institutions dealing with different contents, it is virtually impossible, under the existing procedures for financing and approving educational leave, to obtain paid leave for such courses.

Right from the beginning, firms in France have made use of the opportunity, presented to them by the statutory levy of 1.1 % of their annual wage bill, of organizing educational leave. As early as 1972, the first full year after the law came into force, 86 % of all firms, of which there are around 130 000 with about 10 million employees, met their legal obligations (in 1973 the figure was 87 %). Firms willingly paid more than the then lower percentage figure of 0.8 %. The average for 1972 was 1.36 % of the total wage and salary bill. In 1973 it was 1.45 %. Even nowadays, the average levy paid by all firms is well above the legal minimum of 1.1 %. This only goes to show that the contents and the aims of this Law have, in practice, been directed most definitely towards the firms' requirements in respect to vocational training and further education.

If we look at how the question of financing educational leave has turned out in practice, it is quite obvious that there is a corresponding variety of accents, from an educational policy viewpoint, which have been set. Government-financed measures have mainly been concerned with preparing young school-leavers for work, retraining unemployed persons or improving the chances of promotion in view of the need for supplementary qualifications. In contrast,those measures which have been run by firms themselves or with the help of commercial further-education establishments were concerned with furthering the promotion prospects within the firm in question and mainly to do with familiarizing employees with a new job, helping them to adapt to changes in their job situation, and extending their vocational skills or those determined by the necessities of the firm's particular situation. The third form of further education measures, looking at things from an organizational, institutional viewpoint, consists of courses which are paid for out of the "F.A.F." fund, which is financed by the employers but jointly administered. However, in practice, there has been very little difference discernible between this third category and those measures which are paid for and run by the employers direct.

A further characteristic of the empirical data collected hitherto is the predominant position of relatively young people among those taking educational leave. The under-35 age-group is extraordinarily well-represented with around three quarters of all participants. These figures are also basically in keeping with the main emphases of further education measures mentioned above - further training with a view of helping employees adapt to a new situation or improve their prospects of promotions. The statistical material available also indicates another characteristic of the French experience of educational leave, the fact that the great majority of participants works in large firms with more than 1 000 employees. It is quite evident here, too, that larger firms carry out a more intensive programme of advanced and further training commensurate with the needs of and the possibilities open to such companies. Of course, this has to be seen in the context of the particular levy which has to be paid as well as the possibility of expenditure on their own further training measures counting towards this sum.

2.4.3 Influence of educational leave on the labour market

The statutory educational leave provisions in France mean that every employee has a generally valid, legal claim to educational leave. The quota regulating the maximum number of employees per year entitled to leave from any one firm only has an indirect effect on the right of each individual employee. However, the way in which educational leave is financed does have a clear influence in that, in practice, educational leave most definitely takes on the form of vocational as well as directly firm-related advanced and further training. These structural characteristics are reinforced through the fact that although firms are required to pay 1.1 % of their total wage bill to finance further education, they can in fact set off any expenditure on such activites within the firm against this sum.

As far as France is concerned, there is a quite obvious "division of labour" within the field of further education/ educational leave: on the one hand, the further education measures which are organized by public or private institutions and paid for out of public funds; on the other hand, the extremely extensive field of measures directly organized or controlled by the firms themselves.

2.4.3.1 Manpower withdrawal effects within firms

In line with the situation described above, it is not possible to discover any manpower withdrawal effect at a firm level through employees' taking educational leave.

2.4.3.2 Effects external to the firms

A similar situation exists as regards the labour market in general - it is not possible to determine any obvious effects.

2.4.2.3 Vocational qualifications

If we look at the approach evident in French legislation on further education and educational leave and the situation in practice, it is evident that the emphasis of both is on vocational training. The significance attached to this goal is reflected in the evidence collected showing the emphasis given to courses designed to help employees adapt to changes at work and improve their prospects of promotion. The mere fact that firms voluntarily spend a good deal more that is legally required of them for the purposes of further education clearly indicates the importance attached to vocational initial and further training, an emphasis which is in line with the will of the government and put into practice by firms according to their own specific requirements.

2.4.3.4 Prospects of extending educational leave

As far as this question is concerned, it is quite clear that there is a movement, particularly on the part of the unions, to bring about drastic changes in educational leave provisions.

In the unions' view, the following difficulties have arisen in the practice of vocational education and thus of educational leave - and they are getting worse:

- restraint on the part of the employers at a time of underemployment;
- no stand-ins for employees taking part in educational leave courses;
- imbalance of supply and demand in respect of educational measures;
- inadequate level of information for employees, whether outside or within the firms;
- no guarantee of paid leave and reimbursement of the costs incurred for educational measures.

The large union organisations, the "Confédération française démocratique du travail" (C.F.D.T.) and the "Confédération générale du travail" (C.G.T.), have their own ideas of how to organize the educational leave system in future, which vary in some details:

- Access to educational leave measures: The CFDT feels that the discussions concerned with the claiming of educational leave should be a matter for the unions and the works council. The CGT thinks that individual employees should be left to take the initiative on educational leave; so everything to do with claiming leave (regulations, conditions and the actual means) should be taken out of the hands of the firm in question.

- Financing educational leave: Both unions are of the opinion that every firm has to pay its contribution towards the financing of educational leave. So they are demanding a drastic revision of the regulations governing the employers' further-education levy so that it will no longer be possible for firms to decide entirely on their own how to use this money. The unions want these levies to be used directly to pay the wages of employees taking part in educational leave courses. This could take the form of a fixed percentage figure or could be deducted as a kind of advanced payment which is then paid into a special educational fund to be used solely to cover the costs of educational leave. This sum would be deducted from a firm's further education levy. The unions would want this fund to be jointly administered.

- State influence: The demand is for intervention on the part of the government to prevent any restrictions being imposed on access to educational leave and to encourage the creation of jobs to make up for those on leave. It is obvious that this would have some influence on the labour market.

- Finally, the unions are also demanding an orientation and organization of the planning of educational leave at a joint employer-employee level, further development of vocational opportunities and a guarantee of paid leave for employees taking part in the more lengthy training courses.

These union demands clearly show that the hitherto existing network of further education and educational leave provisions in France needs to be changed in certain important financial and structural points. In addition, the CFDT is also demanding that the goal should be to grant every employee the right to 2 years' educational leave during his or her working-life. Furthermore, the hitherto prevailing statutory provisions, whereby only 1 % of a maximum of 0.5 % of a firm's employees can take paid leave at the same time, should be changed to allow a general absentee quota of 2 %.

A further union demand is closely tied up with this last one - the reduction of the amount which each firm has to pay as a further education levy (at present 1.1 % of the total annual wage bill) to below 1 %. This is of course based upon other union demands that these sums should land up in a fund which is solely to be used to pay for educational leave.

Summing up, we may point out that at present, the stage has been reached where talks are actually taking place between the unions and employers' associations but that no definite agreement has yet been reached as to possible changes.

In conclusion, it should be noted that the discussions on possible changes, as described above, are not necessarily pointing towards any amendment of existing legislation or its replacement by a new law. The unions are concerned to find some sort of a solution on the basis of collective agreements relating to the 1970 and 1976 agreements on vocational further education.

2.5.
Belgium

2.5. Educational leave and the labour market in Belgium

Before looking at the situation in Belgium, it is important to realise that a legal basis for educational leave has existed for nearly 10 years. Thus, the Belgian experience of educational leave is of a comparable length with that of France, with both countries having enjoyed a longer period than any other Member States.

Although in Belgium the number of wage and salary earners is comparatively small (just over 4 million at the end of June 1978), a great deal of information is available on the statutory provisions themselves and on the 10-year experience of educational leave, thus providing an adequate enough basis for a detailed assessment of the situation.

2.5.1 Educational leave provisions

The first statutory provisions governing educational leave in Belgium were passed back in 1963. They laid down that young employees between the ages of 16 and 23 were eligible to 5 days' educational leave per year "in order to round off their moral, socio-political or academic education". Under the provisions of this "Social Advancement Law", participants in such courses received grants from the government in accordance with a detailed procedure; employers were required to release their employees for educational purposes but did not have to continue paying their employees' wages. Other provisions contained in this law laid down that employees may obtain government grants, irrespective of their age, if they attend specific evening or weekend educational courses. A further law, passed on April 10, 1973, then laid down a more detailed, statutory-based definition of the provisions governing educational leave. This law meant that employees were granted the basic right to educational leave.

In the field of collective agreement provisions on educational leave in Belgium, several skeleton agreements were concluded between the two sides of industry in the course of the preparation and passing of the statutory provisions. However, it must be emphasized that these agreements only apply to educational leave for specific office-holders within a firm. For example, in 1971 skeleton agreements were concluded in the "National Labour Council" laying down provisions for and opportunities of taking leave for training courses for members of the unions' representative bodies, the "Employment Protection Committees" and works councils. In each of the various sectors of employment these skeleton agreements were put into concrete terms in different ways but, in fact, these differences only affected the organizational and procedural arrangements and the duration and contents of such measures. Since the collective agreement provisions are considerably less important than the statutory ones, both qualitatively and quantitatively speaking, the following sections will be concentrating on the latter.

Persons entitled to leave

The right of employees in Belgium to be released from work in order to take part in further education measures is restricted in two respects:

- All full-time employees up to the age of 40 working in the private sector are entitled to educational leave;

- Employees wanting to take educational leave are required to undertake something themselves before they can go on educational leave (what may be termed a "credit system").

This age restriction on the group of persons entitled to educational leave has, of course, an effect similar to the age-limit practised by Hesse and Berlin, i.e. reducing the total number of employees who may take leave. The "credit system" is unique to Belgium and therefore requires some explanation below.

This statutory "credit system" means that employees do not enjoy a generally valid immediate right to educational leave. In its place a system of what may almost be termed "prepayments" has been set up whereby the question of whether or not employees are granted educational leave is dependent upon what the employees themselves have already undertaken in the way of voluntary further education activities. If employees can prove that they have voluntarily taken part in such measures over a period of at least 2 years, they are entitled to educational leave for the full duration of the course applied for. In other words, when employees have "paid" a certain amount into the "kitty", they are entitled to take out all they need for the course in question. However, employees who have not taken part in any voluntary courses are only entitled to educational leave amounting to a quarter of the total teaching time of the course applied for.

Course contents

In contrast to the restrictions on these entitled to leave, there are no limits on the contents of courses which may be applied for. Not only vocational further-education courses and those concerned with political or union-oriented education but also courses to do with leisure activities and general education are classified as qualifying for educational leave provided they are run by recognized further education establishments.

Duration of release

Apart from the "prepayment" conditions of the "credit system", there are no other limits on the duration of educational leave in Belgium. Thus, it is theoretically possible to take an extremely lengthy period of educational leave. However, attention should be drawn at this stage to current developments in Belgium aimed at changing the statutory provisions. Details are given in the sector dealing with the discussion on extending educational leave in Belgium.

Financial aspects

Educational leave in Belgium is financed by a system whereby an employer is required to pay a certain amount of his total wage bill into a fund, irrespective of how many employees from his particular firm acutally take leave.

This contribution paid by employers amounted to 0.3 % of a firm's total wage bill in 1973, the first year in which it was paid. A total of 450 million BFr was collected in this way in 1973. This fund was then used as follows: any employer who granted educational leave to his employees was reimbursed for the wage payments made to those on leave. However, although, in this way, paid leave represents one of the most important elements of Belgian educational leave provisions, the amount of pay which employees taking leave receive is much lower than their normal wages - a monthly maximum payment of 28 000 BFr was fixed for those on leave. As this amount was obviously determined with a view to the statutory minimum monthly wage in Belgium (27 300 BFr), it is obvious that this paid-leave provision does mean a significant, even drastic reduction in income for most employees taking part in educational leave courses. The latter are financed to a large extent by the government, either in its capacity as organizer of the courses in question or in the form of grants to appropriate approved establishments.

2.5.2 Educational leave - statistical data and other empirical aspects

The data which are presented below will be presented within the framework of the basic assessments gleaned from other surveys, comments and conversations. According to these, the basic development which educational leave in Belgium has undergone since 1973 has been of a negative nature. This applies, first of all, to the participation structure: those taking educational leave are now mostly relatively well-educated persons, the majority of whom come from a few large firms; they mostly come from the higher income-groups, are well-qualified academically and vocationally, and are mostly fairly young and male.

The same negative trend can be seen in what has happened to the number of persons taking educational leave in Belgium: whereas in the 1972-1973 period, during the 12 months before statutory educational leave was introduced, only 3 314 people took part in such courses, this figure rose to over 20 000 by 1975 after the law came into force; however, since then, it has dropped year for year. Table 6 (p. 120) clearly indicates the development of the numbers participating.

No official statistical material is available to enable us to work out the percentage utilization rate (i.e. the degree to which educational leave is actually made use of). However, one survey assumes that in 1978 around 1.3 % of all those entitled to educational leave actually took it.

Table 6

Statistical data on educational leave in Belgium

	1972	1973/74	1974/75	1975/76	1976/77	1977/78	1978/79
No. of applications	1 150	9 09[illegible]	9 858	10 376	7 658	7 029	5 334
Total amount of compensatory wage payments (BFr)	62 643 234	584 415 262	654 787 044	698 011 335	900 774 536	989 921 886	20 970 051
Total no. of approved "credit hours"	379 551	3 473 899	3 751 641	2 314 499	2 887 746	2 414 374	972 530
No. of blue-collar workers	1 422	22 513	24 333	23 267	21 122	20 132	13 457
No. of white-collar workers	1 933	13 651	14 960	14 869	13 026	11 769	8 030
Total no. of wage and salary earners	3 355	36 154	37 293	38 084	34 148	31 873	21 487
No. refused	133	231	215	176	101	131	31

Source: K. VERBEECK, 1980

Another central empirical aspect of educational leave in Belgium is concerned with its financing through a central fund into which every employer is required to pay a fixed proportion of his total wages bill. In 1973, this figure was set at 0.3 % but in 1974 it was cut to 0.2 % of the total wage bill. In 1979 it was reduced even further to 0.05 % and yet again in 1981 so that, at present, it amounts to 0.03 % of the annual wage bill. It would be easy to interpret this as a conflict-oriented development but this would be wrong - a closer look at what has actually happened to educational leave in Belgium over this period shows why: the income-expenditure relationship reveals that sufficient money has been paid into the fund. The figures for 1976 indicate this quite clearly:

Income (since 1973)	3 524 875 729 BFr
Expenditure (since 1973)	941 355 186 BFr
Balance (1976)	2 583 520 543 BFr

These figures illustrate the fact that only about one quarter of the money available was actually used for compensatory payments to those on educational leave courses. So the lower contributions by employers did not, in fact, result in any deficits in the fund.

The development of educational leave in Belgium is viewed by different ways by those involved. The unions emphasize that two central elements of the educational leave system have largely prevented any more positive development: on the one hand, they see the "credit system" as a major obstacle in that employees are forced to take part in evening or weekend courses on a voluntary basis before they can take advantage of educational leave; on the other hand, the statutory provisions governing the continuance of wage payments must be seen as totally inadequate in that the maximum amount of compensation paid to course participants is virtually as low as the statutory minimum wage, which means that nearly all those taking part are forced to take a considerable cut in wages, i.e. contribute themselves to the costs of educational leave. The unions also mention the fact that not enough information is made available as one of the reasons why this fund is not fully utilized. They are convinced that more employees would take educational leave if they were better informed. On the other hand, the unions also speak of increased pressure by employers - at a time of economic crisis and high unemployment - which makes it difficult or even impossible for potential participants in educational leave to make a serious effort to obtain release from their firm.

The Central Employers' Association, "Verband van Belgische Ondernemingen", also rates the 1973 Belgian Educational Leave Law as, more or less, a practical failure. In the talks we had with employers, it became obvious that, in their opinion, both the basic approach to educational leave in the form of the "credit system" as well as the financing conditions and the course contents permitted all had certain negative aspects. Detailed criticism of the practice of educational leave in Belgium on the part of the Central Employers' Association was included in concrete proposals for a radical reform of the educational leave system in Belgium, which are described below (see Section 2.5.3.4).

2.5.3 Influence of educational leave on the labour market

The educational leave arrangements in Belgium are chiefly characterized by the statutory provisions governing the question of who is entitled to leave and how it is to be financed. This statutory framework has stamped its mould, in a decisive manner, on the corresponding practice of educational leave: the age-limit of 40, which is laid down by law, reduces the numbers of employees eligible to educational leave: what is more, the opportunity of obtaining educational leave is only open to those employees who have previously taken part in unpaid educational leave courses.

There is also the fact that employees are not released on educational leave on full pay. They are only paid a certain amount of compensation with the result that the participants at educational leave courses often have to accept a considerable drop in income, making up the difference themselves. In other words, Belgium's educational leave provisions are linked to certain "pre-payment" or "self-financing" conditions.

2.5.3.1 Manpower withdrawal effects within firms

As may be expected from the outline conditions described above, it is not possible to discover any manpower withdrawal effect worth mentioning within firms. One can merely point to the fact that the majority of all participants, around 75 %, came from large firms.

2.5.3.2 Effects external to the firms

The analyses, empirical data and appraisals of the situation fail to reveal any external effects of educational leave on the labour market.

2.5.3.3 Vocational qualifications

If we turn to the possible influence of educational leave on vocational qualifications, we discover that the same

situation exists - there is no evidence of any effects on the situation in Belgium as a result of the 1973 educational leave legislation. The existing statutory provisions do not, in fact, restrict educational leave to any particular course contents, e.g. vocational training.
Thus, educational leave in Belgium cannot be said to have any influence on the state of vocational qualifications, their improvement or their adaptation to changes in the working situation.

2.5.3.4 Prospects of extending educational leave

Not surprisingly in view of the negative trends apparent in the development of educational leave in the last ten years, the unions, employers' associations and government administrative bodies have been considering for some time a reform of the educational leave system.

The starting-point for this re-thinking process was a unanimous declaration on the part of the "National Labour Council" (a joint body made up of representatives of the government and both sides of industry) on June 1, 1979, calling for the repeal of both the earlier laws and demanding a basic reform of the entire set-up. The aim, it declared, ought to be to guarantee that all employees, irrespective of their status, the sector of the economy they are working in, their job, the size of their firm or their age, are entitled to paid educational leave during their working-life. Their intention was that leave could be claimed for vocational further training as well as for courses of a general educational nature. Employees should be granted educational leave for the entire duration of the course in question, whereby a maximum of 240 hours a year should apply to vocational further training and 160 hours a year to general further education. Thus, the absolute maximum amount of educational leave should, in no case, exceed 240 hours a year. As far as costs and financing arrangements were concerned, it was suggested that 50 % of the costs of educational leave be borne by the government and other 50 % by the employers.

The unions would welcome, in particular, the scrapping of the hitherto prevailing age-limit of 40 so that all employees would be legally entitled to educational leave. There is also support for the planned abolition of the "credit system" of "prepayments". This has proved in the past to be a decisive barrier in the way of actually taking advantage of educational leave. The unions are also demanding an increase in the amount of money paid to those taking educational leave in the way of wage compensation payments. Up to now this sum has been totally inadequate, not much more than the statutory minimum wage. In summing up, it may be said that although the unions are demanding an improvement in and an extension of the statutory provisions and would support such moves, there would appear to be no definite list of priorities which the unions have agreed upon.

In assessing and describing the situation, the Central Employers' Association in Belgium pointed in particular to the fact that the initiative taken by the "National Labour Council" in 1979 was in fact largely the result of proposals made by the employers, indeed was taken at their instigation. As early as November 17, 1977, the Employers' Association wrote to the Ministry of Labour asking for a statement of the government's position vis-à-vis reform of the "credit system". The proposals put forward by the Employers' Association include provisions (which have been adopted as recommendations) under which the duration of educational leave, which has not been fixed up to now, should be laid down by law at a maximum of 240 hours. It was proposed that each employee could take up to 180 hours' vocational further training with the remaining 60 hours being spent on further education courses from other fields.

The Employers' Association clearly indicated that the discussion going on about the subject-matter at educational leave courses was of vital importance. The employers feel that, in contrast to the existing practice of offering a free choice of courses to those taking educational leave, the emphasis in future has to be placed on vocational further and advanced training as well as vocational retraining, which would necessarily mean extending educational leave provisions, facilities and opportunities with this aim in mind. Recognized further education establishments should be used appropriately with participants selected according to definite acceptance procedures. If such changes were introduced, the Employers' Association would also agree to an increase in the wage compensation sum paid to those on leave. A maximum of around 52 000 BFr was proposed.

In the context of the controversy over the subject-matter to be covered at educational leave courses and the fact that employers are required to continue paying their employees' wages, the Employers' Association has indicated that it is willing to accept the "National Labour Council" proposal whereby the government should bear 50 % of the costs of vocational education with the firm in question paying the rest. However, the employers are against any obligation to continue paying the wages of employees who take educational leave for general or any other kind of further education courses. In this case, the employers feel that the government ought to bear the entire cost.

In summing up the situation regarding the prospects of extending educational leave in Belgium, we may point to the fact that a drastic reform of the present set-up is being prepared by both sides of industry as well as by government bodies. It is apparent that, compared to the current provisions, some sort of qualitative as well as quantitative extension would certainly be brought in since there is general agreement on the necessity of scrapping the present age-limit. This would mean that the general right of all employees to educational leave would be guaranteed by law. However, the question of whether or not these new provisions would bring about any basic changes in the practice of educational leave, and if so to what degree (bearing in mind any possible manpower withdrawal effect on the labour market) has to be left unanswered at present.

2.6.
Luxembourg

2.6 Educational leave and the labour market in the Grand Duchy of Luxembourg

The Grand Duchy of Luxembourg is the smallest Member State of the EC and also the smallest country where we will be looking at the relationship between educational leave and the labour market. Luxembourg has 350 000 inhabitants (including a high proportion of foreigners, about one third of the total population, mostly Italians and Portuguese) with around 130 000 wage and salary earners among them. In the context of our study, it is also important to realize that the system of vocational training and general further education (e.g. university education) is by no means a comprehensive one because the country is so small and, as a result, Luxembourg is dependent, to a large degree, on the educational systems of the neighbouring countries of France, Belgium and Germany.

2.6.1 Educational leave provisions

In Luxembourg there are educational leave provisions contained in statutes and collective agreements.

The most important statute is that of October 4, 1973 dealing with the introduction of educational leave. This applied to all young employees up to the age of 25, youth group leaders up to the age of 30 and employees (with no age-limit) wanting to round off their training.

Besides this, there is also a provision in Article 26 of the "Works Council Act" of May 18, 1979 dealing with the question of release for "genuine" members of employees' councils (as opposed to stand-in members). In the case of both these statutes, the provisions are not subject to any regional, sector- or firm-related restrictions.

Besides these statutory provisions, there is also a sort of collective agreement designed to improve productivity which, by way of a sponsoring agency ("Office luxembourgeois pour l'Accroissement de la Productivité a.s.b.l." - OLAP), provides for a general quota of educational leave amounting to 450 working days to which employees in the iron and steel industry and various chemical firms are entitled.

The employees in the iron and steel industry have their own special collective agreement which provides, in Article 31, for one employee in every 200 to be released for 40 working-hours a year.

Finally, there is an agreement between the "Chamber of Labour" (a corporate body with compulsory membership for workers in Luxembourg) and the employers' associations which provides for employees, the number of which is not specified, to be released for a course lasting three days.

Persons entitled to leave

The group of persons entitled to leave varies according to which of the above-mentioned provisions apply:

According to the "Educational Leave Act" of October 4, 1973, three groups of employees are entitled to leave: young employed persons up to the age of 25, youthgroup leaders up to the age of 30 and employees wanting to round off their training, who attend officially-recognized courses to this end (no age-limit applies here). Employees are entitled to leave after they have worked in a firm for at least 6 months.

According to the "Works Council Act" of May 18, 1979, all "genuine" members of employees' councils are entitled to leave provided they take the leave in order to attend educational measures designed to enable them acquire knowledge of or skills in economic, social and technical matters which are important for them as employees' representatives. However, the stand-in members of such Councils are not entitled to leave.

The OLAP Agreement means that all employees in the iron and steel industry and in various chemical firms are entitled to leave amounting to a total of 450 working-days. This total is then divided up among the employees by the unions.

The employees in the iron and steel industry are entitled to leave in accordance with Article 31 of their collective agreement.

All employees are entitled to take part in the three-day courses; applications are made via the unions.

Contents

The "Educational Leave Act" of October 4, 1973 provides for educational measures, the contents of which vary. Topics from the fields of general political and cultural further education are dealt with in the courses for young people; the advanced training courses for youthgroup leaders are especially directed to their vocational activites; and the certificate courses for employees wanting to round off their training are mainly directed towards the acquisition of a master craftsman's certificate although some are designed to help employees obtain their "O-levels" or "A-levels".

The contents of courses for works and employees' council members (in accordance with the Act of May 15, 1979) are laid down afresh each year by representatives of government bodies, the employers' associations and certain unions, and then made public by the Ministry of Labour. Works council members can only obtain release for these particular courses.

The topics covered by the OLAP seminars are mainly from the fields of social legislation and business studies. These courses are organized by the unions.

Similarly, the courses offered under Article 31 of the collective agreement for the iron and steel industry are organized by the unions and are primarily concerned with the employees' situation at work and in society - in other words, they are, strictly speaking, courses to do with political education.

The courses offered by the "Chamber of Labour" cover topics such as labour law, social legislation, tax law and social psychology. They are prepared jointly by the "Chamber of Labour" and the unions.

Duration and structure of release

According to the Law of October 4, 1973, educational leave can last for a maximum of 36 working-days of which not more than 12 days may be taken during any two-year period. Educational leave may also be taken for shorter periods, but not less than two days.

The duration of educational leave under the terms of the Law of May 15, 1979 is dependent upon the size of the firm which the works council member comes from. During the 4-year period of office for which employees' or works council members are elected, the duration of release from work is 40 working-hours for firms with less than 50 employees, 80 hours where there are 50 - 150 employees and 160 hours if the firms employ more than 150 people. There are no provisions governing the time period within which leave has to be taken.

There are no details of the duration of leave in the case of the OLAP Agreement. In other words, the duration is dependent upon the way in which the union divides up the annual quota of 450 working-days. This may be spread over a large or a small number of employees and may be used for educational seminars of any length of time.

Article 31 of the collective agreement for the iron and steel industry provides for educational leave amounting to 40 working-hours for one employee out of every 200. Nothing else is laid down regarding the time period within which educational leave has to be taken.

Finally, there are "Chamber of Labour" courses lasting for three days.

Financial aspects

In Luxembourg, too, it is important to distinguish between the way in which the educational measures are financed and the question of the continuance of wage payments.

In principle, educational measures are financed by the organizing body in question. The main organizing bodies are: the "Chamber of Labour", the unions, a "Workers' College" ("Ecole Supérieure du Travail" - EST) which is supported by the government, the employers and the unions, and various government bodies, in particular the Ministry of Education through its "Service National de la Jeunesse", the latter being responsible for supervising and administering the "Educational Leave Act" of October 4, 1973. The organizers of educational leave courses can apply for government grants for the course in question but they do not have a legal right to this money.

The arrangements for the continuance of employees' wages during educational leave differ according to the agreement or statute which applies. All in all, it is usually the government which undertakes to bear the costs of continued wage payments. Details of the provisions are given below.

As far as educational leave under the terms of the 1973 Act is concerned, one has to distinguish between the public and private sectors. Employees in the public service are paid their full wages by their employer, the government. In the private sector a compensatory payment is made, which is worked out on the same basis as holiday pay. The firm in question pays out this compensation and is then reimbursed in full by the government. The 1979 Act provides for arrangements for financing educational leave which differ according to the size of the firm in question - similar to the provisions governing the duration of leave: in the case of firms with less than 50 employees, the government pays the wages; with firms employing 50 - 150 persons, the costs are shared equally between the government and the firm; and in firms with more than 150 employees, the firm has to bear the full cost.

In the case of wage payments to employees taking educational leave on the basis of the OLAP Agreement (the quota of 450 working-days), the cost is shared equally between the government and employers in the iron and steel industry and the chemical firms involved.

Wage payments which fall under Article 31 of the collective agreement for the iron and steel industry are financed by the government (25 %), in accordance with the terms of the OLAP Agreement, and by the employers (75 %).

In the case of the "Chamber of Labour" courses, the Chamber makes up for two thirds of the loss of wages suffered by participants who have been released on a special unpaid leave by their employers; the remaining third has to be met by the employees concerned.

2.6.2 Educational leave - statistical data and other empirical aspects

Generally speaking, it is impossible to draw any comprehensive conclusions concerning the Luxembourg experience of educational leave provisions on a statutory or collective agreement basis. This is primarily due to the fact that no exact data are available on the situation existing within the sphere of collective agreement provisions. There is also little information available on the practice of educational leave for works council members. Although more detailed figures are available on the total number of participants in courses run in accordance with the 1973 Act, they are of a relatively general nature; in particular, there are no details of the participation structure. For these reasons, the details contained below are mainly based on the information obtained in the interviews carried out in Luxembourg. Our interviewees, for their part, based their conclusions primarily on their own view of matters.

In the following paragraphs, the two kinds of systems of provisions - on the basis of statutes and of collective agreements - are dealt with separately. It was not possible to look at them together because of the differences existing between the two systems.

a) We shall look first at the experience with the educational leave provisions of the 1973 Act. After initial difficulties had been overcome, the number of persons making use of their legal right to educational leave has been hovering around the figure of 1 000 a year for some time now. In 1981, these participants were divided up as follows among the three different types of educational leave (Table 7).

Table 7:

Participants in educational leave courses (run on the basis of the Act of October 4, 1973) in the Grand Duchy of Luxembourg during 1981

Group of participants	Participants		Days' leave	
	No.	as % of total	No.	as % of total
Young people up to the age of 25 at practical and cultural courses	216	20.2	869	30.5
"A-level", "O-level" and youth-group leaders' courses	92	8.6	276	9.7
Employed persons at courses leading to a master craftsman's certificate	761	71.2	1 706	59.8
Total no. of participants	1 069	100.0	2 851	100.0

Around three quarters of the participants took part in courses leading up to a master craftsman's certificate - they were mostly craftsmen from small firms and industrial enterprises who reckoned with or were hoping for better vocational prospects at work after acquiring their master craftsman's certificate. Around one tenth of the participants attended courses of a general educational character, mostly courses within the "second-chance" system enabling employees to catch up on "A-levels" or "O-levels". These are usually evening classes so that the period of release from work obtained by participants only amounts to part of the total time which they have to invest for their further education. Finally, a fifth of all those who took educational leave attended educational events of a political nature where, in the main, topics dealing with civic duties and civic rights were covered. This last group mainly attended events run by young people's organizations and by unions.

The government body responsible for educational leave in Luxembourg, the "Service Nationale de la Jeunesse" in the Ministry of Education, to whom all applications for educational leave have to be sent, has discovered that a great many of these applications come from steelworks and iron-ore mines with other sections of industry such as the tyre industry also well represented. A lot of the applicants are blue-collar workers, a phenomenon which is explained by the high level of union memberships amoung these groups of workers. In other sectors of employment, officials speak of a situation where, 8 years after the Act came into force, many employees know nothing about what they are entitled to on the basis of this statute.

Although detailed information on the sex of participants is not available, the officials responsible pointed out that the vast majority of participants were males; mention was made of a ratio of 9 : 1. The fact that men are so well represented is explained by the high proportion of union-organized blue-collar workers among the participants (women only make up a relatively small proportion of Luxembourg's blue-collar workers) and by the high proportion of courses leading up to a master craftsman's certificate, in which most of the participants are men.

Very few of the applications for educational leave sent to the "Service Nationale de la Jeunesse" are rejected. In those cases where this does happen, the main reason is given as a wrong appraisal on the part of the applicant of what the course in question is actually about - viewing it as a kind of leisure activity and not as an educational measure. A departmental official interviewed said, "The important thing is that further education is encouraged and not just some leisure activity." Particularly in the case of the youth-group leaders' courses, a pre-selection of applicants takes place in that applications are normally only approved if sent in by the organization for which the applicant works (or is going to work) as a youth-group leader.

All in all, it may be said that just under 1 % of wage and salary earners in Luxembourg takes advantage of educational leave on the basis of the 1973 Act. This figure may be increased a little if one takes into account that the group of persons entitled to leave on the basis of this Act does not, in fact, cover all wage and salary earners - although it is open to a certain amount of interpretation. The main emphasis of this Act, which was on young employees under 25 years of age at the time it was passed, has changed in any case thanks to the extremely high proportion of participants taking courses leading up to a master craftsman's certificate. Although all those interviewed thought that an increase in the number of employees applying for educational leave was possible, the employers and departmental officials did have some reservations about taking part in an information campaign (which they all felt was necessary): the employers in view of the fact that they are not interested in an increase in the number of educational leave participants, even if it was a case of unpaid leave, because of organizational problems etc. which they maintained would arise; in the case of the departmental officials, the reason was the fact that financial resources had just about been sufficient hitherto to cover the costs of paying the participants' wages but any increase in the number taking part would prove too much for the funds available.

b) It is even more difficult to summarize the situation applying in the case of educational leave for works council members under the terms of the 1979 Act because of the relatively short period it has been in force. In 1980 only a part of the provisions was actually applicable and so the unions had agreed with the larger firms, in which the right to educational leave expires if not taken within a year, to defer the matter until 1981. As yet, no detailed information is available on the number of participants attending courses on the basis of this Act. However, it should be noted that the unions view the extent to which works council members are taking advantage of their right to educational leave as very unsatisfactory.

Nevertheless, some of the problems which have arisen in practice were mentioned during the talks we had - in particular by the union representatives who pointed to the difficulties encountered in the educational work with works council members. The main difficulties are described below.

First,the unions see a problem in the way in which the courses for works council members are structured from a contents point-of-view. This problem is mainly due to the fact that unions, employers and government officials decide jointly on the list of approved courses for this group of persons, a list which is then made public by the Ministry of Labour at the beginning of each year. Works council members can only take part in courses contained in this list in that they can only, by law, obtain leave for such courses. The unions regard this as a restriction of the course contents for such persons. For example, representatives of the employers have called for lecturers and speakers from their own ranks to be permitted to teach at these courses and demanded that courses where there are no such lecturers be kept off the Ministry of Labour's list.

Secondly, there is the problem of the availability of courses. The "Workers' College" ("Ecole Supérieure du Travail" - EST) was initially too small and inadequately equipped, from an administrative viewpoint, to offer an adequate number of courses for this group. What is more, it soon became evident that there were extremely great organizational difficulties involved in contacting and then dispatching works council members from small and medium-sized firms. As far as the contents of courses were concerned, the problem was that of developing courses covering a wide range of topics with the limited facilities available to the EST.

Thirdly, the differences in the duration of educational leave for works council members from different-sized firms proved problematic. For example, difficulties were encountered in providing suitable courses for the delegates from small firms who only have 40 working-hours' leave during their four-year period of office - courses supplying the participants with a level of knowledge which is sufficient to enable them to carry out their work as members of the works council. In order to provide these participants with adequate further education measures, it was necessary to develop courses which went on into the evening or weekend so as to use up as little working-time as possible. Of course, this meant that these works council members had to give up more of their spare time.

Fourthly, the union representatives pointed out that the existing facilities were hardly sufficient to guarantee a place on further education courses for all the works council members entitled to educational leave on the basis of the 1979 Act. Thus, it would be necessary to extend facilities if all those eligible were in fact to obtain a place.

b) Very little information is available on the provisions of the OLAP Agreement and the collective agreement for the iron and steel industry and the "Chamber of Labour" courses. Generally speaking, one may point to the fact that the OLAP quota of 450 hours' educational leave for the iron and steel and chemical industries has always been fully utilized. Although the actual extent to which the quota is utilized is dependent on the level of union activity, it is possible to carry over any of the quota not used up into the following year. No information is available on the utilization rate in the field covered by the collective agreement in the iron and steel industry and the "Chamber of Labour" courses.

The average age of the participants who can take educational leave under the terms of the OLAP and collective agreement provisions was estimated by our interviewees to be just under 40. The unions explain this average age by referring to the fact that the further education courses for young people are run separately - via the provisions of the 1973 Act. The proportion of women taking part in courses for the iron and steel industry is extremely low because hardly any women work in this industry. The proportion is somewhat higher in the public service, in community work and in the chemical industry. All in all, the interviewees assume that the proportion of women among the participants at educational leave seminars is disproportionately low. As regards vocational qualifications, the interviewees assume that a higher proportion of skilled craftsmen and skilled workers than of semi- or unskilled workers is to be found among the participants at educational leave seminars run on the basis of the provisions laid down in collective agreements.

The union representatives interviewed estimated that there was an adequate number of educational leave courses on a collective agreement basis to meet the demand for places. One of the main reasons is that there is close co-operation between the unions, the union educational institute and equivalent bodies in German-speaking countries. The unions in these countries provide active support for the educational work undertaken by their Luxembourg colleagues, to some extent by supplying visiting speakers and suitable material.

2.6.3 Influence of educational leave on the labour market

In summing up, it may be said that only young employees under the age of 25 have a general right to educational leave. Apart from this, there are possibilities of obtaining leave, which are open to a larger group of employees, on a statutory and a collective agreement basis. However, it is impossible to arrive at any reliable figure for the number of persons entitled to leave.

The actual situation is that just under 1 % of all wage and salary earners in Luxembourg take advantage of educational leave on the basis of the 1973 Act. But no information is available on the number of people taking educational leave under the terms of collective agreements or other provisions and, in view of the specific conditions applying in the various agreements, it would be very difficult to arrive at any figure.

2.6.3.1 Manpower withdrawal effects within firms

The view of all those concerned with educational leave and of the experts interviewed is that the provisions of the 1973 Act cannot be expected to have any appreciable manpower withdrawal effect within firms. The age-limit of 25 also means that there is only a certain number of employees per firm entitled to leave. As the persons concerned are mainly young employees, it is apparently no problem to make up for the work lost through their absence by means of some reorganization within the firm in question, through overtime or by reducing the level of production. The fact that the government bears the costs of paid educational leave is not seen by the employers as being an impetus to create new jobs.

In reality, it would appear that the actual manpower withdrawal effects of educational leave are less than the possibilities opened up by the statutes and collective agreements. Although the possibilities which the 1973 Act opened up are made use of, e.g. by the unions for their youth education work, young employed persons do, in fact, only represent a smallish proportion of those persons taking educational leave on the basis of this Act. What is more, the other statutory and collective agreement provisions are only made use of to an extent which does not cause any problems worth mentioning for a firm's production process and most certainly does not have any manpower withdrawal effect. One important reason for this was given. The fact is that blue-collar workers are the ones who take advantage of educational leave, especially in the larger industrial enterprises, and the loss of these employees can easily be made up for within the firm in question - particularly in view of the small numbers involved. Those taking part in courses leading up to the master craftsman's certificate mainly come from within the Chamber of Handicrafts; in the view of all involved, their participation in such courses primarily serves to further the interests of the firm in question. The verdict of one employer interviewed was that "the 1973 Act is basically of relatively little significance for Luxembourg's industry". Furthermore, a union representative we interviewed expressed the opinion that "if you express this educational leave in terms of jobs, in terms of the actual work which is lost as a result of it, I do not believe that it does, in fact, create any new jobs; the absence of employees on educational leave is simply compensated for by their work-mates - maybe it is not even made up for at all. What is certain is that no new jobs are created to make up for this loss. We have never heard the argument that new people should be taken on because various employees are away on educational leave."

As far as the collective agreement provisions and the 1979 "Works Council Act" are concerned, there is, anyway, an agreement between the unions and the employers under which educational leave is taken in such a way as to spread the load evenly over the various regions, to space it at regular intervals and to distribute it evenly among the firms. As a rule, firms are asked if they are willing to grant educational leave a few weeks before it is to be taken. Thus the production process is hardly affected at all.

2.6.3.2 Effects external to the firms

No indication was given of any effects of the educational leave provisions on the labour market in general.

2.6.3.3 Vocational Qualifications

In the context of vocational qualifications, we are talking primarily about the possibilities available through the 1973 Act enabling those taking part to catch up on general school-leaving qualifications or to obtain their master craftsman's certificate through release from normal work. It is evident, especially from the relatively large number of participants in courses leading to the master craftman's certificate, that people are making more and more use of this opportunity. However, one has to take into account the fact that the share of paid leave in this system of obtaining general educational or vocational qualifications is in fact relatively low compared with the total time which participants have to invest. Thus, the right to educational leave is, in fact, not particularly important for the process of acquiring vocational qualifications.

The provisions of the 1979 Act and those contained in the collective agreements do not include any possiblities of obtaining vocational qualifications and there are none in practice, either.

In the opinion of those interviewed, educational leave cannot act as a vehicle for obtaining vocational qualifications for the simple reason that the educational leave provisions do not go far enough to make this possible. In particular, the employer representative interviewed regretted the fact that the financial resources made available by the government for further education, which are at present flowing into the educational leave pool, are not being used for more selective retraining measures for the unemployed or for in-firm vocational further training. The view of this particular employer was that the educational leave courses are at present primarily a matter for each individual participant but are of little use to the job the employee has to do at his or her place of work. "One of our strong points in Luxembourg is the fact that we have a qualified work force - something which we attach great importance to. However, I think that the situation on our labour market is so tight and the qualifications for the various industries are often so specialised that it is impossible to come up with a general solution to the problem - there have to be specific solutions. Therefore, it would be better and would benefit our whole economy if questions of further education and, above all, of vocational training were to be settled at a firm level and not at a sectoral or even national level." The unions in Luxembourg are convinced that general educational leave must be used primarily for purposes of political education and, thus, that vocational training could not usefully make up the contents of educational leave courses. Not surprisingly in view of this, they feel that there should be no call for the inclusion of vocational training measures in the educational leave system.

2.6.3.4 Prospects of extending educational leave

It may be generally said that the question of extending educational leave is not under discussion in Luxembourg. The government officials who administer the present educational leave provisions assume that it is more likely to become more and more difficult, in view of the growing financial stringency, for the government to fulfil its financial obligations as laid down in the existing provisions. Therefore, the call for the abolition or extension of the age-limit on persons entitled to leave, as laid down in the 1973 Act, which has been brought into the discussion from several quarters, has to be seen as impracticable as far as the foreseeable future is concerned.

The unions see three main problem areas under the present educational leave provisions:

- First, there is the question of extending the provisions governing eligibility to cover the stand-in members of employees' and works councils. The unions feel that the employees' interests can be furthered more effectively and with more continuity if the stand-in council members are also allowed to attend educational leave courses.

- Secondly, the unions view the employers' de facto right of veto, which can be exercised in the joint consultations with union and government representatives to decide on a list of approved courses for works council members, as a major problem facing any attempt to encourage further education measures for works council members which are designed to serve the employees' interests. Every year, the confrontation over the question of which courses are to be included in the list breaks out anew. The unions would like to see the employers' de facto right of veto abolished. The employers, on the other hand, point out that anyone who wants a voice in matters to do with the firm in question needs to be informed about the firm's situation, the overall economic situation and the necessity of certain processes running within the firm.

- Thirdly, the unions see a further problem in the provisions of the 1979 Act which lay down that the duration of educational leave for works council members is dependent upon the size of their firm. In the unions' view, this only serves to make it more difficult to organize suitable courses for this group of persons and, in some cases, makes it actually impossible to carry them out within the period of leave available.

At present, it is impossible to say how these three problem areas, which the unions have brought into the discussion, can be dealt with or even solved.

2.7.
Denmark
Greece
Ireland
The Netherlands

2.7. Educational leave and the labour market in the remaining States - Denmark, Greece, Ireland and the Netherlands

It is not possible to provide any detailed information on the situation in the remaining Member States as regards educational leave and any possible influence it has on the labour market. The reason is that educational leave provisions either do not exist in these countries, are only at a planning stage or else have only just come into force. The four countries are dealt with separately in the following sections.

2.7.1 Denmark

Hitherto, there have not been any statutory or collective agreement provisions on educational leave in Denmark which apply to all employees. There have only been what may be termed "specific elements of educational leave", which have meant that persons holding some sort of official post within a firm have been able to apply for educational leave on the basis of an agreement signed between employers and unions.

Surveys carried out by the European Trade Union Institute of the European Trade Union Confederation have shown that Danish employers have repeatedly called for limits on the amount of paid leave granted for union purposes or to carry out union work. The Danish Trade Union Federation, on the other hand, has demanded the following provisions concerning educational leave:

- a basic right to vocational further training for all employees;
- paid educational leave;
- the right of each employee to return to the job done before educational leave was taken;
- the right of employees to determine themselves the course of education they want to attend;
- the right to active contacts at work in connection with the course of training.

The proposals made by the Danish Trade Union Federation are to be placed on a suitable statutory basis. However, it should be pointed out that the demands of the Danish unions do not go as far as the ILO Convention No. 140.

We may summarize the situation in Denmark by saying that, up to now, comprehensive provisions on educational leave have not been anchored in any collective agreements nor laid down in law. Therefore, no effects at all can be registered as far as the labour market is concerned.

2.7.2 Greece

The situation in Greece is similar. As yet, the right to educational leave for all employees has not been laid down in any statutes or collective agreements.

However, there is one case where educational leave is guaranteed by law. Firms with more than 100 employees are required to grant two weeks' paid educational leave to up to 3 % of their work force. But it is not a question of each employee having an individual right to leave - these statutory provisions lay down that the unions are to select the participants in such courses. It should be noted that the question of the kind of subject-matter dealt with in the courses concerned is unimportant. It would appear that those employees chosen for educational leave are mainly the active union members, which is hardly surprising considering the method of selection. Nevertheless, the unions in Greece are calling for the right to educational leave to be extended to cover all employees.

Of course, this selection process does constitute an obvious restriction compared to the situation where all employees are entitled to educational leave. On the other hand, it has to be pointed out that employees who have been released on educational leave are guaranteed their full wages, paid by their employer, during the period of absence from work - bearing in mind, however, that this is based on an upper limit per firm of around 3 % of the work force per year.

In the case of statutory provisions in Greece, we are not dealing,as in the UK, with a situation where educational leave is limited by law to persons holding official union posts in a firm. However, the de facto situation in Greece is actually very similar because of the right enjoyed by the unions of selecting people for educational leave courses. The restriction imposed on the group of persons entitled to educational leave, the fact that the size of firm is laid down, the existence of this selection process and the fact that the maximum quota per firm is also laid down - all these factors mean it would be wrong to assume that there is any significant manpower withdrawal effect in Greece.

2.7.3 Ireland

As for the situation in Ireland, one needs to start off by pointing out that there has not, as yet, been any legal basis for educational leave. Moreover, very little evidence and empirical information are available regarding the appropriate provisions contained in collective agreements. On the other hand, the government is, at present,planning to investigate or actually introduce the possibility of granting employees release from work for the purpose of further education.

From February 1980 onwards, a working group appointed by the government and composed of representatives from both sides of industry, experts and government officials have been investigating the situation in Ireland in the light of the ILO Convention No. 140. In its report, the working group is unanimous in proposing the approaches already adopted in two areas in Ireland, that of general training and trade union education.

The recommendations of this officially-appointed working group met with the government's approval. The Labour Minister, in a recent statement on policy (November 1981), explains the conditions under which educational leave would be introduced in Ireland. When they become reality in the none-too-distant future, they will in fact represent a ratification of the ILO Convention No. 140.

In the view of the Irish government, a form of educational leave already exists. It enables an intensive programme of further education to be carried out, especially in the field of vocational further training for apprentices. For example, more than half of the 4 000 apprentices are given the opportunity of this kind of further education at special further education centres, whereas the rest are offered further training within their respective firms. The latter takes the form of day- or block-release in local Colleges of Further Education. Furthermore, attention is drawn to several other examples where specific groups of employees, e.g. civil servants, are able to take advantage of fully-paid educational leave. Besides these forms of academic further education, other examples are mentioned, such as 12-month courses for managerial staff at management academies.

With a view to the possibility of the government's placing educational leave on a legal footing and extending the provisions, the Confederation of Irish Industy, an Irish employers' association, has already stated its position. Although they accept the basic principle that further education needs to be available to all employees, they want any possible obligations on the part of the employees to be restricted to paying the wages of employees taking part in courses dealing with matters of direct relevance to the firm in question. The Confederation of Irish Industry is against any universally-valid obligation to continue paying employees' wages for any kind of further education. There is also a call for the introduction of a uniform national system of certificates in order to ensure that universally comparable standards and certificates exist for such further education courses.

The Federated Union of Employers (FUE), the other centralized employers' organization in Ireland, can also provide examples from a survey it carried out. It revealed 128 firms in Ireland which have already brought in provisions for what amounts to educational leave. According to the results of this survey, 102 firms stated that they had enabled employees in industry to take part in further education courses on full pay. Only 7 firms granted their employees unpaid educational leave. As far as managerial staff were concerned, 113 firms said they granted their employees paid leave and only 3 unpaid leave. Similarly high figures were given by the firms in reply to the question concerning release for employees to prepare for or take examinations. However, in this case the proportion of firms granting unpaid educational leave was higher. The general conclusion which this study comes to is that the question of whether paid leave is granted for such courses is mainly dependent on the relevance of the course attended to the work-place and the job of the employee concerned.

The unions in Ireland welcome the possibility of a move towards the introduction of a general right to educational leave applying to all employees. The provisions and practice up to now have been limited to the field of further education for persons holding official union posts within a firm or to the field of trade union education in general. For example, the Irish Congress of Trade Unions (ICTU) pointed out that during 1979 and 1980, a total of 1 400 trade unionists took part in 89 day-release courses lasting between two and five days. In addition, 15 further education seminars were organized for a further 659 trade unionists, each lasting for two days.

As far as the question of obtaining leave for union members to attend these events was concerned, the ICTU said that provisions of this kind are the subject of direct negotiations and agreements at a firm level - a similar situation to that in the UK.

In summing up the situation in Ireland, it may be said that although, at present, there are no educational leave provisions embodied in any statutes or laid down elsewhere, the initiative taken by the government could lead to the introduction of such provisions in the near future. The present situation is that there is no evidence in Ireland of any manpower withdrawal effects through educational leave.

2.7.4 The Netherlands

There are, at present, no statutory provisions and no other kinds of arrangements for educational leave in the Netherlands.

However, attention must be drawn to the work which is being undertaken at present by a government-appointed investigative commission and is nearing completion. According to the information we obtained from representatives of the Dutch unions and Dutch employers' associations, this commission is looking at the possibilities of introducing a system of paid educational leave. It is due to present its recommendations in the course of 1982.

With the situation as it is in the Netherlands, it would be wrong to assume that there have, up to now, been any manpower withdrawal effects on the labour market.

2.7.5 Summary

As far as the four Member States we have looked at here (Denmark, Greece, Ireland and the Netherlands) are concerned, we may sum up the situation by pointing out that, up to now, there have been no, or at best very restricted, statutory provisions or other kinds of arrangements guaranteeing employees the right to take educational leave. As a result of these extremely limited opportunities, no apparent manpower withdrawal effects of educational leave can be observed on the labour market in these four countries.

3.
Summary of the findings

3. Summary of the findings

In the following chapter we would like to present in a summarized form the findings of our investigation of the relationship between educational leave and the labour market in the Member States of the EC. This summary has been subdivided into four question headings:

- What manpower withdrawal effects are evident within firms as a result of educational leave ?
- What influence does educational leave have on the labour market, particularly as regards the unemployed ?
- How important is educational leave with regard to employees' vocational qualifications ?
- What possible effects could an extension of educational leave have on the employment situation?

Finally, we want to supplement this summary of the findings with some more general comments on the relative importance of these findings and the scope of our study.

Before dealing with the above-mentioned questions, it is important to point to the fact that the subject-matter, the statistical material available and the phrasing of the question at the heart of this study made it impossible for a variety of reasons (mainly because of the methods used) to arrive at any comparison in the strict sense of the term. Therefore, as far as any comparison is concerned, we shall have to confine ourselves in this summary to comments on trends, which can only be illustrated with the help of examples from the one country or the other. A comparative analysis will have to wait for a larger, systematically-planned research project.

What manpower withdrawal effects are evident within firms in the Member States as a result of educational leave ?

There can be no doubting the fact that, generally speaking, educational leave is only utilized to a very small degree. Consequently, it can hardly have any effect on individual firms.

However, the reasons for the extremely small manpower withdrawal effect which educational leave has within firms in the Member States are clearly to be found in the underlying statutory provisions or other arrangements for educational leave. It is a fact that restrictive regulations severely limit the possible effects of the educational leave provisions in the various countries. Examples of these restrictions would be the age-limits on persons eligible for educational leave, the limitation of the right to educational leave to certain occupational groups, the maximum quotas for each individual firm and the limitations on the kind of course contents which may be offered.

Despite the various restrictions on statutory or collective agreement provisions, there are some areas where educational leave is still utilized is to a relatively degree. However, the cases in question are all big industrial concerns, such as in the Land of Lower Saxony in the Federal Republic, where the absence of employees on educational leave is not made up for by taking on more people but through various in-plant measures. For example, in the case of assembly-line work, stand-ins take over the jobs done by those on leave, or else their work-mates make up for the loss of their colleagues by putting in more work themselves. There is also the fact that work organization measures enable firms to make up for the absence of employees for a short period of time.

What influence does educational leave have on the labour market in the Member States, particularly as regards the unemployed ?

It is only possible to detect a very slight influence of educational leave on the labour market in general, looking at the things from an employment policy angle. The same reasons which were mentioned above as regards the virtual absence of manpower withdrawal effects within firms may be seen as playing a decisive role here, too. The only real effects of educational leave on the (un-)employment situation are of an indirect nature. For example, there has been expansion in the field of further education institutions in those countries where the existing provisions have led to the development of a comprehensive system of educational leave. Of course, this expansion was only made possible through taking on more full-time teaching staff. The most obvious example of an increase in the number of full-time further education instructors to prepare and carry out educational leave courses is to be found in Italy.

How important is educational leave with regard to employees' vocational qualifications in the Member States ?

Of all the Member States of the EC, France is the main example of a country which has introduced educational leave for the express purpose of vocational training. Besides France, we may point to the large amount of educational leave taken in UK. However, this is concentrated very heavily on vocational further education programmes within the firms concerned. In Italy they are still at the discussion stage as regards introducing vocational training into the system of educational leave. As far as the Federal Republic of Germany, Belgium and Luxembourg are concerned, vocational training does not play a major part in the provisions for educational leave although, in practice, there are an increasing number of opportunities for vocationally-oriented educational leave in these countries.

Of course, it should be noted that the term "vocational training" is not totally clear. What is more, in cases where it is used, it is usually defined in a narrow sense as being the acquisition of vocational qualifications in the way of certificates. This narrow definition of the term means that the job-related significance of vocational qualifications of a general educational nature (e.g. in Italy), or of the integration of topics from the fields of political and vocational education (as in the Federal Republic), or of political topics of a general educational nature is largely ignored. Here, it would be necessary to produce a more detailed analysis of the respective significance for vocational qualifications and for a person's professional life of the participation by various groups of employees in educational leave courses with the various kinds of contents.

Generally speaking, it may be said that at the present point in time educational leave does not fulfil any additive or complementary function in the systems of vocational training measures. Therefore, the present emphasis in educational leave courses to do with vocational training is on initial training and job-related contents, or, as in Luxembourg, on educational leave to prepare for the master craftsman's qualifying examination. However, there does seem to be a tendency in some Member States towards educational leave being taken less and less frequently for political and general education activities and more for vocational training measures.

What possible effects could an extension of educational leave have on the employment situation ?

Bearing in mind the very limited effects of educational leave taken under the terms of existing statutory provisions or collective agreements, we can take a look at the prospects of extending educational leave and see whether any manpower withdrawal effects are likely on the labour market. In the case of those provisions where priority is expressly given to course contents which are directly related to a particular occupation or workplace and in the case of statutory or, in particular, collective agreement provisions for persons holding official posts in a firm, empirical data are available. The main points of the empirical evidence may be summed up as follows: it is fair to speak of the direct, or at least indirect, utility of the educational leave measures in question; or of the fact that a degree of utility is implicitly or explicitly contained in the concept behind course structures of this kind.

Whereas the extension of the educational leave provisions for in-firm officials is mainly aimed at the field of union-oriented further education and is thus pursuing a particular course, job- or workplace-oriented educational leave is moving in exactly the opposite direction. For example, the French provisions show how educational leave is more and more frequently being initiated and organized by the firms themselves. What we can say about this development is that it jeopardizes, to say the least, the original basis for educational leave, i.e. individual employees themselves exercising their right to further education .

Nevertheless, the very fact of the growing problems of unemployment in all the Member States of the EC shows that up to now, far too little attention has been devoted to educational leave in the discussion of alternative employment policies. For example, it would be essential to include educational leave in the packet of measures concerned with shortening working-hours, whereby, at the same time, the various approaches with their differences in emphasis should also be kept apart or, as the case may be, linked together.

An assessment of the statutory provisions or other arrangements for educational leave which exist at present in the Member States clearly shows that planned changes, or those being discussed, are merely aimed at an improvement in or extension of the present arrangements in order to bring about, or at least to supply the initial push towards, an increase in the average rate of utilization of educational leave in the Member States. One possibility for the future, especially in the question of supranational initiatives, should be seen in the central role which the various European institutions have to play. They should be helping to forge a link between the systems of educational leave in the various Member States in the context of the central issue at stake - reducing the unemployment problem in the European Community.

An assessmentof the relative importance of the present findings

The findings presented here paint, all in all, a fairly gloomy picture of the arguments for educational leave from an employment policy point-of-view. However, one has to take into account that this study has attempted to measure what is basically a short-term and, in the final analysis, economically describable influence of educational leave on firms and on the labour market. This undertaking in fact ignores a great many extremely important factors which would certainly have been just as vital for an investigation of the relationship between educational leave and the labour market as those discussed here; these include, besides aspects of more long-term effectivity, questions of the working climate,

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the vocational and social mobility, the social insights and the political enterprise of employees. One also has to take into account the fact that, generally speaking, the introduction of paid educational leave leads to a different understanding of the relationship between work and education than existed, as a rule, beforehand. What people then realise is that education is just as important a part of their working life as the job they do. However, this relationship should not be confined merely to the acquisition of additional qualifications which are only of direct use for the job in question - in this respect, educational leave is certainly an important milestone in the discussion on educational and employment policies. Thus, the question of the distribution of the work available, which has been the concern of this present study, should be extended, from a political and academic viewpoint, to cover the question of the distribution of available work and attainable education. Thus, when the question of extending educational leave is discussed, it is not enough just to talk about changes in the way in which the hiterto prevailing concepts of educational leave are put into practice. It is much more a matter of discussing additional arguments, relating to economic and social policies, for educational leave as one of a number of instruments designed to tackle and overcome unemployment due to structural changes and rationalization in the industrialized countries of the West. What this means in concrete terms is moving away from the present ad hoc, holiday-like character of educational leave and introducing completely new qualitative and quantitative dimensions into the discussion.

Finally, it should be pointed out that this present study was confined to an investigation of the way in which educational leave affects in qualitative and quantitative terms the labour market in general and firms in particular. Therefore, the main focus of interest in this survey was on the structural aspects of work and not on the workers themselves, although they are, of course, the ones who are really affected by educational leave. If we look at the relationship between educational leave and the labour market from a different angle, that of the individual employee who enjoys educational leave, we arrive at a completely different conclusion than was possible in the case of our analysis of the structural effects of educational leave. The importance of educational leave for individual employees is undisputed in the discussion of this whole issue - this was confirmed in all the interviews we conducted. It is only thanks to educational leave that the majority of wage and salary earners can actually even enjoy the chance of taking part in educational measures (even though the actual realization of the possibility of educational leave in many cases falls disappointingly short of the expectations). Moreover, the increasing significance of further education for each individual is just as undisputed. In explaining this, reference is made, in the main, to the growing isolation of individuals in society, their increasing orientation difficulties, the increasingly rapidly and radically changing technological and social demands on individuals and, last but not least, the increasing speed with which vocational qualifications become outdated.

What this means for individuals who take educational leave in order to attend further education measures is not only that they are taking part in activities which are important in the context of their own lives, but also that they are, in the end, reducing the total number of hours they will actually work during their working-life in favour of activities aimed at developing their own personality or their ability to orientate themselves and be active politically and vocationally (cf. SCHAFF, 1982). In the interviews we conducted, attention was drawn time and time again to the fact that - irrespective of how one sees this development - the increasing rate at which our environment and society are changing will necessitate a shift in our activities and habits away from what may be termed pure work and towards the whole field of education. Tied up with this is, of course, a reduction in our total working hours - something which is seen as a worthwile and important goal by nearly all those we interviewed.

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I-IV

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Annex II: Details of the questions put to the experts

Paid educational leave in the Member States of the EC

Questions were to be asked of experts from the employers' associations, trade unions and governments of all Member States concerning

- the specific provisions governing paid educational leave (Part 1),
- statistical data and experience to do with paid educational leave (Part 2),
- the effects of the educational leave provisions on the labour market; the discussion of present and/or long-term prospects for and possible results of extended programmes of educational leave (Part 3).

Part 1: Substance of educational leave provisions (on the basis of statutes or collective agreements)

- How many days' educational leave are granted (monthly/annually) ?
- Who is entitled to take educational leave ?
- What kind of courses/lessons/seminars are eligible for educational leave (e.g. vocational/firm-related/general educational subjects) ?
- If educational leave is granted, who pays
  - the participants' wages/salaries ?

  - for the educational measures themselves?

- How should the most important provisions governing such educational leave measures be laid down:
  - on a statutory basis and/or in collective agreements ?
  - so as to apply to all employees or just to specific groups ?
  - with a large variety of contents/topics in the courses/lessons/seminars concerned, or in such a way as to be strictly limited to specific areas (e.g. firm-oriented, job-related) ?

- "Financing educational leave":
  which is preferable - educational leave financed wholly out of public funds or entirely by employers ?
  Or, would some sort of joint financing arrangement in fact be better, e.g. wages/salaries paid for by employers, the cost of courses/lessons/seminars borne by the government ?
  Or should, in addition to the joint financing arrangement, employees be required to bear part of the cost of educational leave ? If so, in what form ?

- Are there any restrictions on educational leave, such as
  - an age-limit for participants,
  - restrictions affecting the occupation or position of participants,
  - minimum or maximum quotas for individual firms (factories/works) ?

- Final assessment: if, up to now, educational leave has neither played an important practical nor a significant theoretical role, would it still be possible to agree in principle to the hypothesis that educational leave (in whatever form it may take) could have some influence on (un-)employment problems in the country concerned or in any of the other Member States ?

Part 2: Statistical and other empirical data concerning educational leave

- How many employees have taken advantage of educational leave opportunities to which they are eligible under the terms of statutory or any other provisions ?

- How high is the participation rate ?

- Structural break-down of the group of participants:
  - age groups;
  - male and female participants;
  - employees' occupations or positions;
  - level of education/educational qualifications;
  - branch of trade and size of the companies/enterprises concerned with educational leave

- What institutions or organizations run courses, lessons or seminars for those taking educational leave ?

- Details of the programmes and subjects taught at these courses or seminars or in the lessons.

- Impact, operation and significance of statutory or any other provisions with regard to educational leave programmes (e.g. approval and control procedures) ?

Part 3: Influence of educational leave measures on the labour market; the discussion of present and/or long-term prospects and possible results of extended programmes of educational leave

- Does the statistical material available at present indicate any influence on
  - the labour market as a whole ?
  - certain groups of employees ?
  - certain branches of industry ?

- Do employers' associations and unions favour any particular kinds of courses/lessons/seminars (e.g. vocationally-oriented) ?

- Possible future developments:
  Would it be possible for educational leave measures (either on a statutory or any other basis) to play some part in the search for solutions to the growing problems on the labour market, in particular the problem of unemployment ? (e.g. reduction in working hours, bringing forward the age of retirement, increasing annual holiday-leave)

- What standpoints are taken by
  - unions
  - employers' associations
  - government bodies
  - political parties

in the discussion of extended educational leave programmes ?

- What are the prospects of a co-ordinated approach at a European level ?

- At a national level: what are the main arguments for introducing or extending educational leave programmes which would have a long-term influence on the employment situation ?

- What are the chief barriers in the way of any realization of extended educational leave measures ?
  What are the main objections to/arguments against educational leave provisions ?

Annex III: Interviewees and informants

Federal Republic of Germany

Mr. K. Allgayer, Cologne, Employers' Association

Mr. R. Ebert, Cologne, Employers' Association

Mr. K. Jostarndt, Düsseldorf, Trade Union

Mr. R. Knebel, Hannover, Government Ministry

Ms. H. Sutter, Heidelberg, Research Institute

Italy

Ms. P. Paoletti, Pisa, University

Mr. L. Pasini, Bologna, Employers' Association

Mr. M. Salvador, Pisa, Union

Mr. G. Sica, Florence, University

Mr. E. Taliani, Pisa, University

Mr. M. Veroni, Milan , Union

United Kingdom

Mr. A. Bates, London, Confederation of British Industry

Mr. D. Gowan, London, TUC

Mr. J. Graystone, London, TUC

Mr. M. Weston, London, Manpower Services Commission

France

Mr. G. Cossais, Paris, Trade Unions (CFDT)

Mr. R. Briesch, Paris, (CFDT)

Ms. Montalescot, Paris, Employers' Association

Ms. C. Chrétien, Paris, ADEP - Central Educational Institute at the Ministry of Education

Ms. C. Dartois, Paris, ADEP - Central Educational Institute at the Ministry of Education

Belgium

Mr. F. Tiebout, Brussels, Employers' Association

Mr. T. Colpaert, Brussels, Trade Union (ABVV)

Luxembourg

Mr. W. Müller, Luxembourg, Government Ministry
Mr. R. Pizaferi, Remich, Trade Union
Mr. J. Schoos, Luxembourg, Young People's Home
Mr. P. Soisson, Luxembourg, Employers' Association
Mr. A. Wantz, Luxembourg, Government Ministry

Ireland

Mr. C. Power, Dublin, Confederation of Irish Industry

European Institutions

Mr. G. Köpke, Brussels, European Trade Union Institute
Ms. L. Wilcox-Polson, Brussels, European Trade Union Institute
Mr. E. Piehl, Brussels, European Trade Union Conference (ETUC)
Mr. K. Schütze, Paris, OECD

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"Bildungsurlaubsmodell: Arbeitssituation, Mitbestimmung und Betriebsverfassung", Hannover, 1979 (together with P. Krug);
"Bildungsurlaub. Zwischenbericht über Erfahrungen", Neuss 1980.

Ekkehard Nuissl, Ph.D., has been on the research staff of the "Arbeitsgruppe für empirische Bildungsforschung" (AfeB) in Heidelberg since 1977, chairman of the AfeB Executive Committee since 1975, and has held a part-time lectureship in adult education at Heidelberg University since 1976.
His publications include:
"Scheitert die Hochschulreform?", Reinbek 1973 (with R. RENDTORFF/W.-D. WEBER);
"Massenmedien im System bürgerlicher Herrschaft", Berlin, 1974;
"Soziale Defizite in der Weiterbildung", Heidelberg, 1976 (with G. HOLZAPFEL/H. SUTTER);
"Lernen an Erfahrungen?", Frankfurt/Main, 1979 (with Y. KEJCZ, et al.);
"Dropout in der Weiterbildung", Heidelberg, 1979 (with H. SUTTER);
"Problemfeld Bildungsurlaub", Braunschweig, 1980 (with P. SCHENK);
"BUVEP-Endbericht", 8 Vols., Heidelberg 1979-81 (with Y. KEJCZ, et al.);
"Taschenbuch der Weiterbildung", Baltmannsweiler, 1982;
"Modellversuche in der Weiterbildung", 2 Vols., Heidelberg, 1982 (with Y. Kejcz, et al.).

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